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FLYWHEEL PROPULSION SIMULATION

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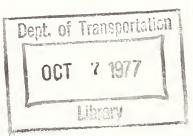
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This report was prepared in support of the Urban Mass Transportation Administration's program in flywheel energy storage. This report develops and describes the analytical models and digital computer simulations that can be used for the evaluation of flywheel-electric propulsion systems employed with urban transit vehicles operating over specified routes and with predetermined velocity profiles. The computer simulation is divided into two sections. The first section simulates the dynamic behavior of the vehicle enroute, computes the energy and power requirements, and the power losses of each of the propulsion system components. The second section utilizes thermal models to compute the temperature rises of each of the propulsion system components. The simulations can be used to determine the suitability of a given flywheel-electric propulsion system for an intended mission.



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PREFACE

The work described in this report was performed by Alexander Kusko,
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closely with the authors to develop a working simulation on the Transportation Systems Center computer. Ms. Ruth Weinstock of Word Guild did

much to make this report more readable and more interesting.

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FXECUTIVE SUMMARY

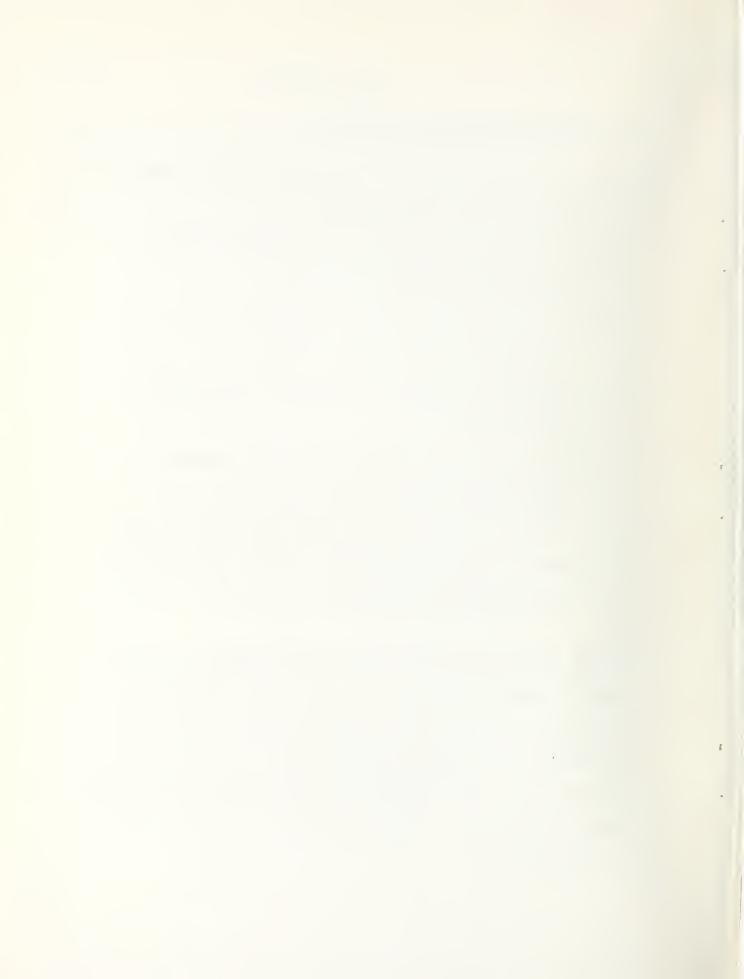
This report develops and describes the analytical models and digital computer simulations of the electric propulsion systems for flywheel energy storage vehicles. The simulation described facilitates a critical evaluation of candidate flywheel-powered electric vehicles operating over urban transit routes. The computer program provides dynamic or time-varying information on voltages, currents, tractive effort, flywheel speed, etc., as the vehicle traverses a given roadway profile and conforms to a specified velocity profile. The specific flywheel electricdrive propulsion system is well defined in the computer model, and is based on manufacturers' data for the actual hardware. The power losses in the major components are computed at each time interval and used as inputs for the thermal models, which determine the temperature rises of the components. The wayside recharge of the flywheel, using the on-board alternator as a motor, is simulated and the use of regenerative braking to recover energy and store it in the flywheel is also featured.

This simulation can be used to determine whether or not the component ratings have been properly selected, based on the temperature rises observed after a run of several round trips or mission cycles. Scaling laws are provided to change the loss models and the thermal models in accordance with changes in the machine ratings or sizes.

The simulation can also be used to determine:

- If the flywheel size, i.e. energy storage capacity, is adequate for the vehicle/mission profile.
- The energy efficiency of the propulsion system in terms of average kWh required per vehicle route mile.
- 3. The effectiveness of regenerative braking energy recovery in reducing the propulsion energy requirement, i.e. is the extra complexity of regenerative braking worthwhile in terms of energy savings?
- 4. The time required to recharge the flywheel at each stop, so that inconveniently long recharge intervals are identified.
 Alternate recharge strategies can then be simulated to minimize the longest recharge time. One such scheme makes all recharge intervals of equal time.

Finally, this simulation can be used to determine suitability of a given system configuration for an intended mission. Also, changes in the ratings of components and different configurations of components can be analyzed in order to optimize the drive system. Furthermore, the simulation method can be applied to electric-drive systems for battery energy-storage vehicles, to hybrid vehicles, and to vehicles operating from wayside power.



1. INTRODUCTION

Research Context

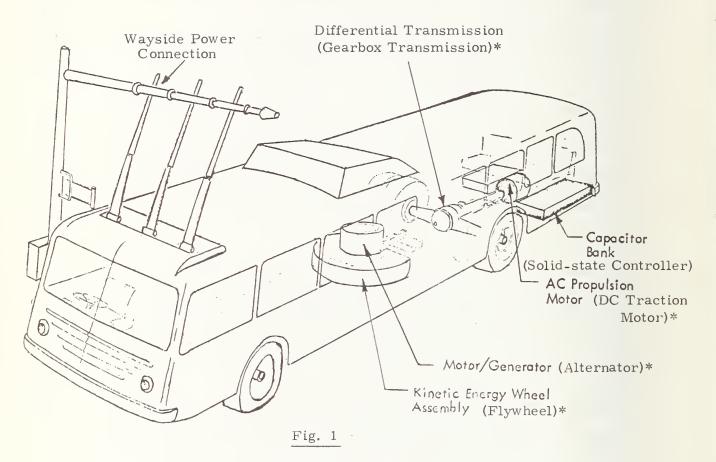
Development of a bus propelled by a flywheel instead of by an engine or storage battery has long interested urban transportation planners.

The kinetic energy stored in a flywheel supplants the need for petroleum-derived fuels and minimizes negative environmental impacts. Flywheel-driven vehicles depend on fossil-fuel, nuclear, or hydroelectric central station power. They have no emission fumes and low noise levels.

The flywheel propulsion concept is not new. As early as 1935, an Electrogyro Bus 1 powered by a kinetic energy wheel was placed in service by Oerlikon of Switzerland (see Fig. 1). Designs that combine flywheel energy-storage with conventional electric-drive systems, however, have not been actively developed until recently. Renewed interest in this type of vehicle stems from the dual concern with reducing pollution from fuel-burning vehicles and, following the 1974 oil embargo, with developing alternative energy sources.

Basically, a flywheel is a spinning disc which stores kinetic energy.

Carried on board a rubber-tired vehicle, it can be charged or recharged using electric power at selected wayside stations. The stored



Oerlikon Electrogyro Bus

^{*}Parenthetical names refer to major components of the baseline system modeled in this report. While roughly equivalent to those used in the Swiss bus, these components have been varied somewhat, for reasons which will be explained in Section 2 of the report. (Solid-state controllers, for example, were not available in 1935.

energy is expended between stations to supply: (1) traction power for propelling the vehicle along the roadway; (2) power for overcoming the power losses incurred by the major system components; and (3) auxiliary power for on-board lighting, heating, cooling, and other passenger comforts. The sum of these three power components is the total power delivered by the flywheel at each instant of travel time. The energy required to propel the vehicle between charging stations, plus the losses and auxiliaries, must be equal to the energy drain on the flywheel during the same time interval. The main purpose of the drive system is to convert the energy stored in the flywheel to useful propulsion power at the vehicle drivewheels.

Flywheel energy-storage systems are now under serious consideration for use not only in buses but also in subway cars, trolleys, and other vehicles. For example, an R-32 energy-storage unit built by the Garrett Corporation is currently being evaluated in-service on selected New York City subways. Also, the Urban Mass Transportation Administration recently sponsored the design of a flywheel electric-drive system to propel trackless trolley coaches for the San Francisco Municipal Railway. Hybrid electric-drive systems for off-highway vehicles have been seriously studies by the U.S. Army.

Further development of flywheel-driven vehicles can be facilitated by establishment of criteria and procedures for measuring the performance of alternative proposed systems. Since the energy stored in the flywheel must be sufficient for the vehicle to reach the next charging station, effective design procedures will be needed to accurately compute the sums of the three power and energy requirements cited earlier. In addition, procedures for selecting properly sized components for the system configuration will require realistic assessment of (1) both peak power delivered and maximum power dissipated as losses within these components; and (2) the temperature rises resulting therefrom.

Techniques for calculating both the required propulsion power and the required auxiliary power of any electric-drive system are already well established. Flywheel electric-drive systems are more complex, however, than the conventional electric-drive systems used for battery-and wayside-powered vehicles. Application of standard design techniques could result in erroneous estimation of (1) flywheel energy-storage requirements and (2) the temperature rises of the system components. Despite the cited advantages of flywheel propulsion, the losses in the major components of such systems often constitute a substantial portion of the output. Procedures more accurate than the standard design

techniques will thus be needed, first, to calculate these losses and then, to use these calculations for determining the total energy required from the flywheel and the temperature rises of the major system components.

Performance Criteria for Flywheel Electric-Drive Systems

This report can be used for evaluating the degree to which the configuration of major components and the component ratings selected for a proposed propulsion system will optimize its performance. The report presents a procedure for developing computer models of the electric-drive system for a flywheel energy-storage vehicle. The computer simulates the overall operation of the vehicle and its drive system as well as the electromechanical and thermal operation of the drive system components. The "baseline" system modeled was patterned after an existing vehicle traveling a known route in accordance with a predetermined velocity profile. Any parameter of the route, of the vehicle, or of the drive system components could, however, be varied and the overall effect on system performance easily determined. These modeling techniques can be applied to conventional battery-powered as well as flywheel electric-drive systems, and to any vehicle operating from wayside power.

To evaluate the performance of a proposed system, two primary factors should be considered:

Proper ratings of the major components

Adequacy of the flywheel energy-storage capacity.

The ratings selected for the major components determine how heavily they are loaded in actual use. If a selected rating is too small, the undersized unit is overloaded and operates less efficiently, i.e., with larger power losses. This larger loss is dissipated in the form of heat within the component and thus produces a higher temperature rise than "allowable by the manufacturer." The excess temperature shortens the life expectancy of the unit.* Allowable temperature rises, determined on the basis of the class of insulation used, typically range from 80 C to 160° C. As a rough rule-of-thumb, for every 10° C a component operates over the allowable temperature, its life expectancy is halved.

If a selected rating is too large, the temperature rise is minimal but the penalties of increased size, weight, and cost reduce the attractiveness of the design. Optimal sizing of a major component is achieved when the final temperature rise that occurs after several round trips is 5 to 10

^{*} Sudden and complete failures of major components are also possible when the allowable temperatures are exceeded. The likelihood of such breakdowns depends on the type of major component in question (e.g. motor or solid-state device) and the degree of excess temperature.

degrees below the manufacturer's allowable temperature rise.

Misspecification of the flywheel size can have varied effects: underspecifying will not allow for sufficient energy to propel the vehicle from station to station; overspecifying will increase flywheel weight at the expense of the vehicle's passenger capacity. Accurate determination of the flywheel size in the early stages of design is particularly important since correcting a misspecification involves timeconsuming and costly changes in vehicle design.

This time and cost constraint is considerably more stringent than that on the design of other forms of propulsion. For example, minor modifications can usually accomplish major changes in the power ratings of batteries or engines. If underpowered, a vehicle that operates on electric batteries can have more batteries added; one powered by a gasoline engine can have minor changes made to the spark advance or air intake. Any flywheel modifications, by contrast, would entail not only changing the containment ring used to isolate the flywheel in case of mishap (and thus the size of the envelope) but also redesigning the vehicle layout.

Optimal flywheel sizing procedures should determine the energystorage capacity needed by accurately computing all known energy requirements. A margin of 40 to 50 percent should then be added to these requirements to allow for contingencies, such as high winds, and to prevent flywheel spin-down below half speed.

The key to designing a system that fulfills all performance criteria is careful determination of the power losses of each major system component. Power losses directly determine the temperature rises of the components; the losses are required to derive the component efficiencies and to calculate the energy drain from the flywheel.

Inaccurate determinations of losses, then, can lead to poor sizing both of the major components and of the flywheel. In the computer simulation, power losses are calculated at each instant of time, as a function of the dynamic state of the system.

Two additional criteria evaluated by the simulation are: usage constraints, particularly the time required to recharge the flywheel at a station; and the overall efficiency by which flywheel energy is converted to useful propulsion power. Energy-conversion efficiency is clearly important in a time of increasing costs for all forms of energy and will influence the projected operating costs for the vehicle. Although both these factors are usually determined only from actual test data,

computer evaluation is possible primarily as a byproduct of the "dynamic" simulation described in the next section.

Simulation Approach

The main computer program is divided into two major portions.

The first portion simulates the dynamic behavior of the vehicle as it makes a run over the route. Using as input the velocity profile of the vehicle and the grade profile of the roadway, the computer calculates at each time increment: the electrical and mechanical quantities of the drive system (such as power, voltage, current, and speed); the required propulsion power; the power losses of the major components; and the power required from the flywheel. The calculated power losses are used to determine the efficiencies of the components at any given instant; flywheel power requirements are summed while the vehicle is traveling to find the flywheel energy drain (spin-down) between stations.

In the second thermal portion of the main program, the power losses already determined are used as inputs to thermal models in order to compute the temperature rises of individual components. Thermal models are developed only for those major components whose temperature rises are expected to be significant.

These modeling procedures are more applicable to the design of flywheel energy-storage vehicles than techniques traditionally used for electric-drive systems. The critical data requirement for designing a properly-sized flywheel is the total energy required from the flywheel. The methods used in the Flywheel Propulsion Simulation to calculate this quantity as well as to evaluate the selected ratings of other major components either expand on or depart from the traditional approach in a number of important respects.

Any approach to designing an electric-drive system starts with a vehicle propelled over a roadway in accordance with the desired velocity profile. Data on either an existing or a hypothetical vehicle may be used, and aerodynamic drag may be taken into account if desired. In a first step, the required tractive force is determined on the basis of these data as a function of time, usually by using a computer simulation to insure greater accuracy. The required propulsion power is also calculated as the product of tractive force and velocity.

Following this step, however, the basic assumptions and calculation procedures of the Flywheel Propulsion Simulation differ significantly from the traditional approach. Traditionally, component ratings are selected by approximating both the average and the peak power that

the component will have to deliver in order to get the vehicle over the route on schedule. To determine the average loading of the electric-drive-system components, either the time-averaged or the root-mean-square (rms) value of the propulsion power is used along with an efficiency factor, which is assigned to each component on the basis of manufacturers' test data obtained under steady-state rated conditions.

This procedure assumes that efficiency values will remain meaningful as the load undergoes large variations during the mission. To determine whether the thermal heating of a component will be within allowable limits, it furthermore relies heavily on the designer's judgment of the effect of average and peak power losses on service life of the component. The traditional methodology, in sum, does not take into account the effects of wide variation of operating conditions and losses during a typical run of a vehicle.

In contrast, one of the basic assumptions of this report is that component efficiency will vary widely under the dynamic conditions of the roadway. Because the modeling techniques compute power losses at each instant of time, the Flywheel Propulsion Simulation can determine average and peak losses more realistically and can more accurately calculate on the basis of these losses both the flywheel energy-storage

capacity required and the thermal heating that will occur in the major components.

The inclusion of detailed loss models for each component and the development of thermal models for the major components, thus, constitute a significant expansion of the technology available for designing electric-drive systems. Because the simulation includes thermal models, it can both track temperatures and evaluate the suitability of components of different ratings and designs for inclusion in a proposed system. Because it includes highly detailed loss models, the simulation is particularly applicable to flywheel energy-storage systems, where losses are so significant a part of the output. Though traditional techniques necessarily take losses into account, the actual loss calculations for each component are embodied in only one, approximated, efficiency factor.

It should be noted that while the accuracy of the modeling procedure derives from the dynamic approach, the credibility of the loss models depends not only on their detail but also on their use of manufacturers' loss data for existing hardware. The manufacturers' efficiency data, traditionally employed, were not used in this simulation except to confirm the accuracy of the loss components of the models.

Scope of Analysis

The Flywheel Propulsion Simulation, in summary, can be considered both an evaluation tool and a design tool. On one hand, it can be used for comparing proposed flywheel electric-drive systems with respect to specific performance criteria. On the other hand, it can determine selection of the correct ratings for major system components.

Such changes in the size of units do not necessarily require basic redesign of the system, however. More fundamental changes in a system configuration -- e.g., substituting an ac for a dc traction motor or using a chopper instead of a phase-controlled rectifier -- are also possible with this simulation method. Variations in sizes of components are therefore considered, but detailed evaluation of alternatives at this time, however, would have demanded extensive reprogramming of the simulation, a change clearly not permitted by the time constraints of this study.

Also excluded from the scope of analysis was the possibility of coupling a flywheel energy-storage unit with a mechanical- rather than an electric-drive system. The baseline electric-drive system modeled offered a number of advantages: the flexibility and high efficiency of solid-state control; the availability of electric machines of reasonably

high efficiencies; and greater flexibility in the arrangement of the major components within the vehicle. It furthermore bypassed several disadvantages. A mechanical-drive system would have required an additional auxiliary power generator and entailed a more complex and expensive process for recharging the flywheel.

A description of the baseline system modeled -- the components and prototype existing vehicle as well as the modes of system operation -- is presented in the next chapter of this report, followed by a description of modeling procedures in Section 3. The parameters for the power loss and thermal models are detailed in Section 4. Because the simulation results were necessarily constrained by the baseline parameters modeled, selected variations in those parameters were considered, though not actually modeled, and are also discussed in Section 4. Results of a sample run for the baseline system, as well as recommendations for the use of the simulation, and the design of electric-drive systems, are given in Section 5. Several appendices provide the mathematical equations which are the dynamic, loss and thermal models of the drive system; definitions of the variables used in the report; typical printouts of a computer run, and manufacturers' data on the components for the baseline system.

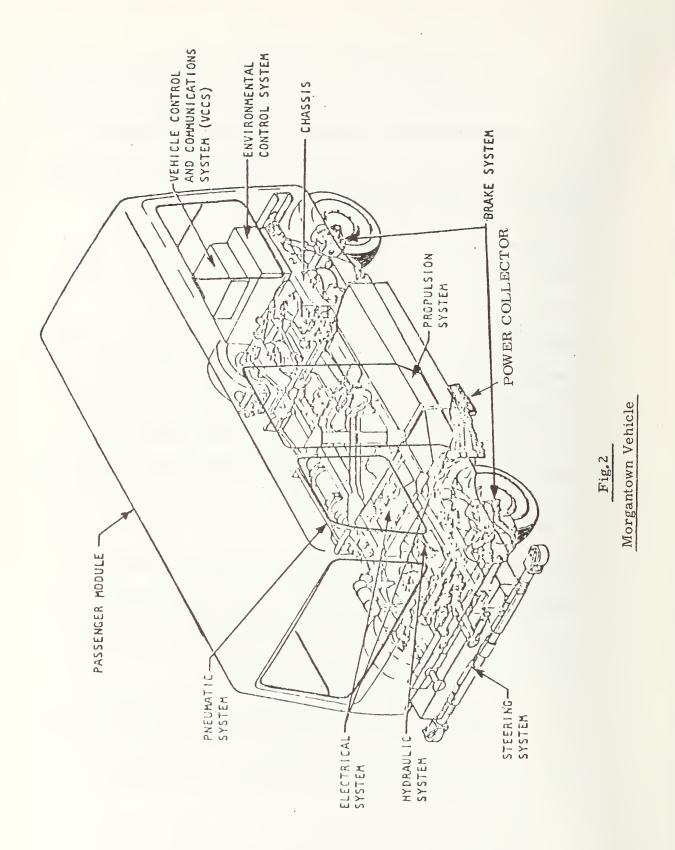
2. BASELINE SYSTEM: COMPONENTS AND MODES OF OPERATION

Configuration of Major Components

The baseline flywheel energy-storage vehicle was patterned after an existing vehicle: the 21-passenger, rubber-tired PRT (personal rapid transit system) vehicle built by Boeing for the Morgantown, West Virginia transportation project, which was sponsored by the Urban Mass Transportation Administration. This vehicle (see Fig. 2) was selected for modeling mainly because it is already operant. While the propulsion system modeled for the baseline vehicle has several components in common with the existing vehicle, its configuration is more complex since it adds a flywheel and an alternator.

The configuration of components selected to develop the modeling procedure is that most frequently proposed by other designers for flywheel energy-storage vehicles. The includes five major units (see Fig. 3), which serve the following general functions:

The flywheel stores energy that is charged into it at a wayside power connection and delivers energy when the vehicle is traveling between stations. The component



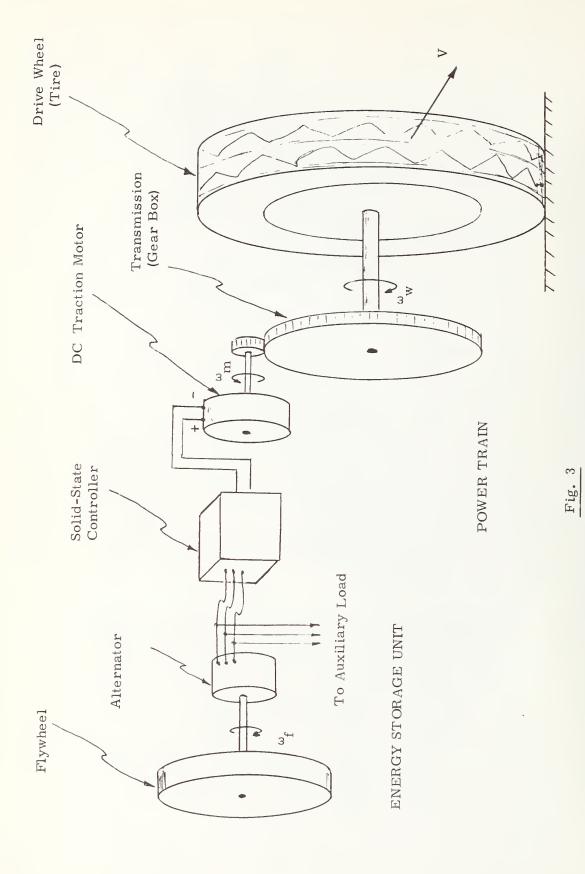
modeled is characterized by only two parameters: maximum speed (12,000 r/min), and moment of inertia (45 slug-ft²), equivalent to 13.4 kWh.

The alternator directly coupled to the flywheel, supplies the auxiliary load and generates ac power for vehicle propulsion as the flywheel slows down. During recharge, it accepts ac wayside power as a motor.

The component modeled is a Westinghouse brushless, 3-phase, 4-pole, synchronous machine that is rated at 75.8 kVA unity power factor and 12,000 r/min. The alternator was selected to match the power rating of the dc traction motor and the maximum speed of the flywheel. The alternator-flywheel is similar to that for the San Francisco Municipal Railway prototype flywheel energy-storage trolley coach.

The solid-state controller consists of a 6-thyristor (SCR), 3-phase, full-wave phase-controlled bridge rectifier.

It normally modulates and rectifies the ac power for use in the dc motor but may also, during braking, convert dc to ac power. The F-400 Power Pack 9 manufactured by Power Semiconductors, Inc. was modeled.



Major Components of Baseline Propulsion System

The dc traction motor provides the torque to drive the vehicle. The component modeled is a compound-wound, 4-pole machine that is rated at 70 hp and 2,730 r/min. This type ASEA-built motor was installed by Rand-tronics 10 in the Morgantown vehicle.

The single-stage transmission, a simple gearbox, provides a speed reduction of 7.17:1 as it couples the dc motor to the vehicle drive-wheels.

The first two components comprise the energy-storage unit; the last three can be called the "power train," which is subdivided into electrical and mechanical parts. The transmission and drive-wheels comprise the mechanical part. As the vehicle is propelled along the roadway, the direction of power is usually from the energy-storage unit via the power train to the drive-wheels. During braking, if that operation is performed electrically rather than with friction brakes, this direction of power is reversed.

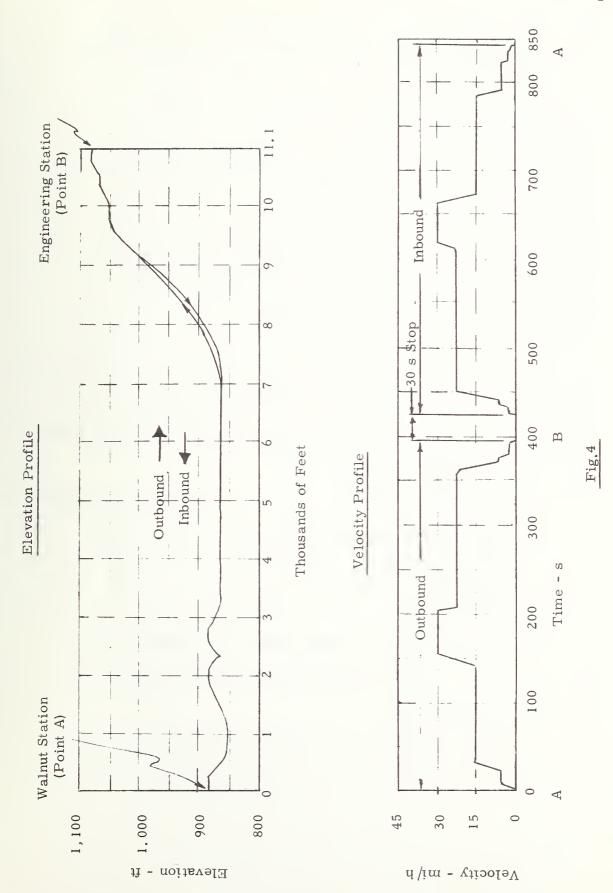
The data used in the computer simulation for these components were derived from two sources: for the dc traction motor and gearbox, from published data on the components actually used in the Morgantown vehicle; for the alternator and solid-state controller, from

manufacturers' equipment catalogs and from personal communications with manufacturers' personnel. Manufacturers' data on all components are detailed in Appendix E.

Of the components modeled, the ac and the dc machines typically have the lowest efficiencies -- each about 0.88 at base conditions and considerably lower under adverse combinations of load and speed. Efficiency of the gearbox can be expected to remain above 0.90 at all times; of the solid-state controller, above 0.97. Hence, the two components with lower efficiencies (i.e., larger power losses) required more elaborate loss models; the loss models for the gearbox and the solid-state controller were much less complex. The flywheel losses were neglected; they could be included as part of the alternator friction and windage losses.

The Mission Profile

The Morgantown PRT vehicle modeled was assumed to traverse the route between the Walnut and Engineering stations on which that vehicle is presently operating. The Flywheel Propulsion Simulation adopted both the route elevation and the vehicle velocity profiles currently in use (see Fig. 4). The vehicle covers a distance of 2.065 mi one-way (4.13 mi round-trip) and travels at a maximum speed of 30 mi/h. One-way travel time between the two stations, which are



Roadway Elevation and Vehicle Velocity Profiles for the Morgantown Route

labeled A and B respectively, is roughly seven minutes. The portion A-to-B is the outbound segment of the route; B-to-A, the inbound segment.

The complete round-trip between these stations can be called the "mission cycle" of the vehicle. Initially, the flywheel is charged to maximum speed at the Walnut station (Point A). The vehicle then travels under flywheel propulsion to the Engineering station (Point B), where the flywheel is recharged during passenger boarding. Finally, the vehicle returns to the starting point, and the mission cycle is repeated following a flywheel recharge at Point A.

In the computer simulation, both mission profile parameters and vehicle parameters are used to compute the required tractive force and the required propulsion power at each instant of travel. The three mission profile parameters are:

Roadway grade (slope of roadway elevation plot)

Vehicle velocity

Wind velocity ,

Prestored values of these parameters are used at each instant of elapsed travel time. The following vehicle parameters are prestored at the start of a computer run:

Effective weight

Tire friction coefficients (rolling and coulomb friction)

Aerodynamic drag forces (drag coefficient and frontal area).

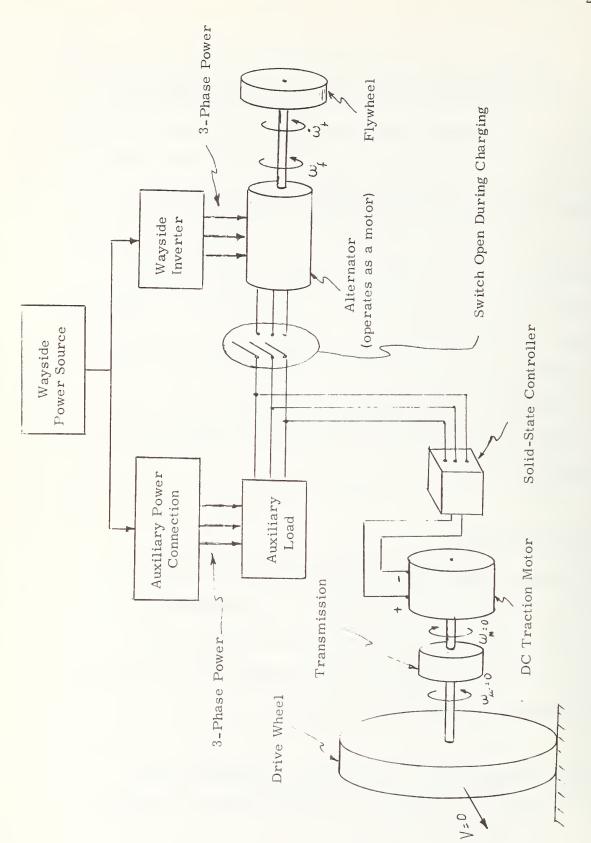
Headwinds and/or tailwinds may be used in the drag calculation.

The Flywheel Propulsion Simulation is capable of modeling a more elaborate mission cycle (one with three or more stations, for example) and any number of successive round-trips (i.e., extended missions). In modeling the continuous performance of the vehicle, this multiple-trip capability is needed to find the final temperature rises of those components, i.e., the electric machines that have long thermal time constants.

Modes of Operation

The flywheel propulsion system operates alternately in two different modes. In the traveling mode, flywheel energy is expended between stations to supply the three major requirements of the system. In the wayside charging mode, that energy is replaced at each stop as the flywheel is recharged to maximum speed.

Wayside Charging Mode. The charging or recharging process (see Fig. 5) begins when the vehicle is parked at a station and passengers



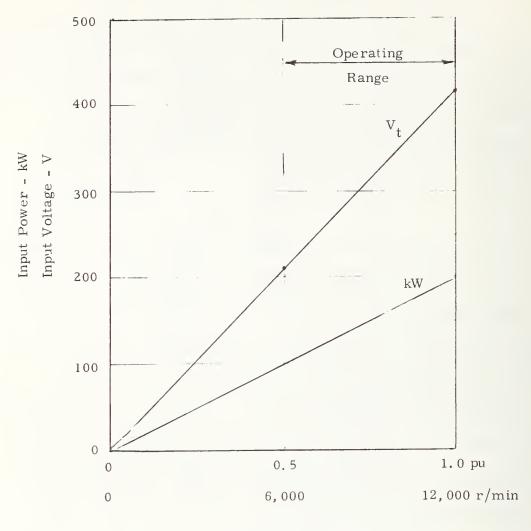
Wayside Charging Mode: System Diagram

Fig, 5

are boarding. The dc traction motor and solid-state controller are electrically disconnected; the auxiliary load is supplied by wayside power. A stationary charging-station inverter provides 3-phase adjustable-frequency electric power to the alternator operating as a motor to accelerate the flywheel.

As the flywheel speeds up, the input power delivered to the ac machine is controlled to be proportional to the alternator-flywheel speed (i.e., the ac frequency), while the armature current and the power factor are held constant (see Fig. 6). Input voltage increases in proportion to the speed of the alternator; at maximum speed, this voltage is assumed to be 20 percent higher than the rated terminal voltage of the alternator. The 20 percent higher charging voltage is used to reduce the armature current and to minimize alternator overheating during each recharge.

The charging process usually continues until the maximum (rated) speed of the alternator and flywheel (12,000 r/min) has been reached. It could, however, be stopped at any point if additional constraints on charging are introduced (such as an arbitrary upper bound on the time available for recharging the flywheel at each station). The charging terminated, the vehicle proceeds down the roadway in the traveling mode.



Alternator Speed

*Alternator operating as a motor at constant armature current of 2.2 pu and constant power factor of -1.

Fig. 6

Wayside Charging Mode for Baseline System:
Input Power and Input Voltage vs. Alternator Speed*

A critical problem with flywheel electric-propulsion systems is the long recharge time. For the baseline system modeled, recharge to full flywheel speed and energy required 215s after the vehicle traveled an uphill outbound segment and 80 s after a downhill inbound segment. The longer recharge interval is about 50 percent of the one-way travel time; the shorter interval, about 20 percent. However, the charging intervals could be made equal, at about 157 s each, corresponding to 39 percent of the one-way travel time. The flywheel would not be fully charged when the vehicle starts its downhill inbound segment. Since the alternator would be running at less than its full speed, as well, its extra field-circuit losses would cause the overall energy losses for that segment to be greater than for the baseline system. These recharge times would probably be an unacceptable inconvenience to the general public. In fact, long recharge time caused abandonment of the early Swiss Electrogyro Bus. The charging time can be reduced by increasing the size of the alternator and by raising the power delivered from the wayside to the alternator and flywheel.

Traveling Mode. Using flywheel energy, the vehicle moves along the roadway in accordance with the predetermined velocity profile. To supply the correct tractive force required for maintaining this velocity, the firing angle of the solid-state controller is adjusted continuously, which in turn determines the load on the alternator at each instant of

travel. These adjustments are required to account for time-varying changes in required velocity and tractive force that occur as the vehicle travels between stations. For a given vehicle configuration, these variations result from changes in:

Inertia force (proportional to vehicle acceleration)

Gravity force (proportional to roadway grade or slope)

Tire friction force (nearly constant-changes slightly with vehicle velocity)

Aerodynamic drag force (proportional to square of sum of vehicle velocity and wind velocity).

In the computer simulation, then, the velocity, grade, and wind profiles are pre-stored as the mission profile. Tractive force is calculated at each instant of travel as the sum of four components:

1) inertia; 2) gravity; 3) tire friction; and 4) aerodynamic drag.

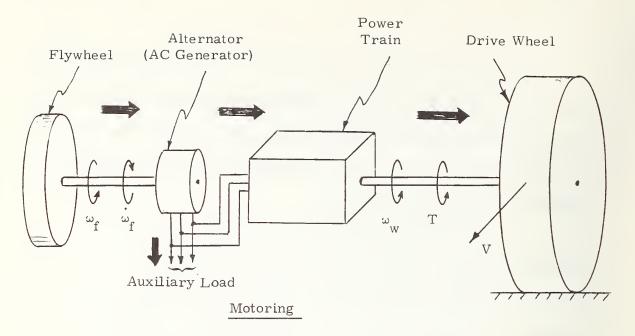
The field current of the alternator is regulated to maintain constant terminal voltage, even though the alternator slows down from 12,000 r/min to as low as 6,000 r/min. The auxiliary load is thus supplied at constant ac voltage, but at a frequency from 400 Hz to as low as 200 Hz.

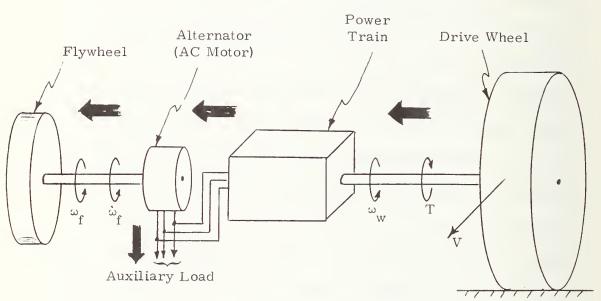
The traveling mode has two mutually exclusive forms, either motoring or braking, depending on the positive or negative sign of the tractive

force required at the drive-wheels. During motoring, positive tractive force is required to push the vehicle in the direction of travel. When the vehicle slows down, e.g., before a station or on a steep downgrade, negative tractive force is required.

Regenerative braking, rather than either dynamic braking or friction braking used on the Morgantown vehicle was selected for the simulation, since it is potentially more energy-efficient. The type of braking used in a flywheel energy-storage vehicle can influence total energy consumption and therefore the amount of flywheel energy expended. Regenerative braking can transfer some of the vehicle's kinetic energy to the flywheel; in both friction and dynamic braking, that energy would be dissipated in the form of heat. The energy savings from regenerative braking are potentially greatest for heavy vehicles (which have greater kinetic energy) and for vehicles that: stop frequently for passengers (i.e., over five times per mile); require high braking decelerations; or travel routes with steep grades. These are conditions for the largest negative tractive force and generally the largest negative propulsion power at the drive-wheels.

During regenerative braking, the direction of power is the opposite of that during motoring (see Fig. 7). The direction of the current in the field windings is also reversed, but that in the armature winding





Regenerative Braking

Fig. 7

Traveling Mode: Direction of Power Flow During

Motoring and Full Regenerative Braking

remains the same as in motoring. In motoring, the dc traction motor receives energy for propelling the vehicle from the solid-state controller; in braking, it operates rather as a dc generator, receiving energy from the drive-wheels and sending it into the controller, where it is converted into ac power. This ac power is used primarily to provide the auxiliary load. Any surplus power, after the component losses have been accounted for, is used to drive the alternator as a motor and thus, to supply the torque that accelerates the flywheel during regenerative braking.

Two types of regenerative braking -- either full or partial -- are possible. If the traction power is greater than or equal to the auxiliary load plus the sum of all the losses in the major components, full regenerative braking occurs; if not, the braking is only partial. During partial braking, the dc motor operates as a generator; the alternator, however, does not operate as a motor. Rather, it also operates as a generator but supplies a reduced electrical load. This reduction of the electrical load on the alternator diminishes the energy drain on the flywheel. Even in partial regenerative braking, this energy drain is less than in friction braking.

In sum, the direction of power can be either from the flywheel to the drive-wheels (during motoring), or in the reverse direction (during regenerative braking). Regardless of the direction, the losses of the major components must always be computed and their effects on flywheel speed properly accounted for. In the Flywheel Propulsion Simulation, however, the sequence in which losses are computed always proceeds from the drive-wheels to the flywheel. To determine the power required from the flywheel, which is also the rate of flywheel energy discharge, the required traction power is worked back through the loss models. This sequence of computations holds for both the motoring and regenerative-braking modes; in braking, however, the tractive force and the traction power are negative.

3. COMPUTER SIMULATION PROCEDURES

Scope of Simulation

The Flywheel Propulsion Simulation has been implemented in the Digital Equipment Corporation DEC System-10 computer located at the Transportation System Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Because the simulation is programmed in Fortran IV, a universal language, the program can be used on most other large-scale machines with little or no modification. This section describes the operation of the computer program and the procedures for calculating propulsion power and auxiliary power requirements. More complex portions of the simulation, including the power loss and thermal models as well as alternative ratings of major components, are detailed in the next chapter; a sample run of the program for the baseline system is described in Section 5.

Operation of Computer Program

The Flywheel Propulsion Simulation consists of an executive program, a main program, and nine subroutines. The executive program is called VSPC (Vehicle System Performance Calculator); it serves as

the program controller, since it calls in the main program and subroutines as needed. The main program is called FLY (Flywheel); it performs all the computations required for simulating operation of the baseline system, including the following:

Required tractive force and propulsion power

Power losses in all major components

Total power at flywheel during discharge and recharge

Flywheel speed and its kinetic energy

Electric currents and voltages

Thermal heating of select major components.

Nine auxiliary subroutines are used in conjunction with the main program: the two subroutines that process input data are:

 $FLY\phi$ 1 a listing of all input constants

PROF 1 a subroutine to process "raw" mission profile data,

The five subroutines that collect, label or summarize the output data are:

FORM 1 prepares comment statements for the tabular dynamic and power loss printout (FOR \$\dph\$ 3)

FORM 2 prepares page titles for the FOR \$\phi\$ 3 printout

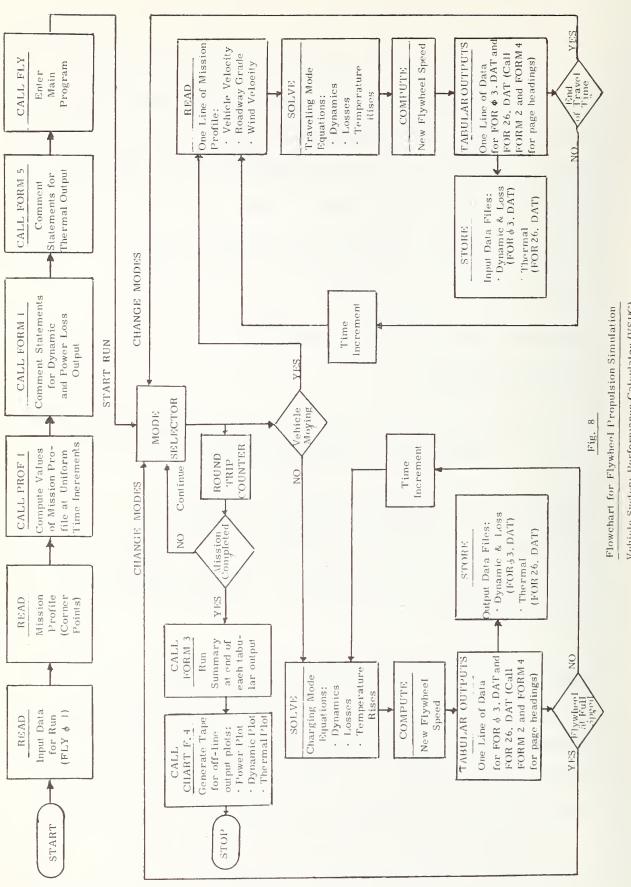
- FORM 3 prepares a summary output to follow tabular outputs
- FORM 4 prepares page titles for the tabular thermal output (FOR 26.DAT)
- FORM 5 prepares comment statements for the FOR 26. DAT output .

The tabular outputs for a run are stored in the two subroutines used as data storage files:

FOR ϕ 3. DAT dynamics and power loss tabular output FOR 26. DAT thermal tabular output .

The flowchart for the Flywheel Propulsion Simulation, shown in Fig. 8, indicates the overall sequence of computations and the decisions made at each time increment of the simulation. A computation step-size of one second was used.

The flowchart contains two major loops, for the wayside charging and traveling modes. The program is begun in the wayside charging loop, with the flywheel initially at low speed, and remains there until the flywheel reaches its rated or full speed. It then switches to the traveling loop and calls in new mission profile inputs (i.e., vehicle velocity,



is the computer code name for the overall program, Vehiele System Performance Calculator (VSPC)

roadway grade, and wind velocity) at each time increment. At the end of the traveling mode (a known traveling time), the simulation switches back to the charging loop for flywheel recharging. These alternating loops are both repeated until the desired number of cycles of the extended mission have been completed.

The program tabular outputs are prepared at each time increment and stored in the two output data files. Listings of the dynamics and power loss outputs during the wayside charging and traveling modes are given in Tables 1 and 2, and of the thermal outputs during both modes, in Table 3. Outputs are available in either one-second or five-second time increments. Sample outputs are provided in Appendix D, which includes comment statements as well as output data.

At the end of each complete computer run, subroutine FORM 3 prints for ready reference a tabular summary of key parameters and their peak values. This summary appears at the end of each of the two outputs. The tabular summary shown in Table 4 is for a run of five consecutive mission cycles, to insure that the electric machine temperatures have stabilized.

Finally, the simulation provides a plotting program, Chart F. 4, that displays significant system parameters in a 6-channel strip-chart fashion. A table (see Table 5) describing the key system parameters

<u>Table 1</u>

Dynamic and Power Loss Outputs During

Wayside Charging Mode (FOR \$\phi\$ 3. DAT)*

Parameter	Symbol	<u>Units</u>
Flywheel speed	ω	pu
Flywheel acceleration	$\overset{\cdot}{\omega}_{ ext{f}}$	rad/s^2
Alternator power input	P_{in_w}	kW
Alternator terminal voltage	v _t	V
Alternator armature current (per phase)	\mathbf{I}_4	pu
Alternator field current	I ₅	pu
Alternator efficiency	η_{ac}	pu
Alternator armature copper loss	A_{1}	kW
Alternator field copper loss	A ₂	kW
Alternator core loss	A ₃	kW
Alternator friction and windage loss	A_{4}	kW
Alternator stray load loss	A ₅	kW
Alternator total loss	P ₇	kW
Alternator power angle	δ	deg
Alternator power factor angle	θ	deg

^{*} The order of the output quantities in the table corresponds to the sequence in which they appear in the computer tabular outputs.

Table 2

Dynamic and Power Loss Outputs During

Traveling Mode (FOR \$\phi\$ 3. DAT)*

Parameter	Symbol	Units
Vehicle velocity	V	mi/h
Propulsion (tractive) force	F	lb
Flywheel speed	ω	pu
Power required from flywheel	Р	kW
Propulsion power (at wheels)	P ₂	kW
Alternator power factor angle	θ	deg
DC traction motor total loss	P ₅	kW
Alternator total loss	P ₇	kW
DC traction motor terminal voltage	Eo	pu
DC traction motor armature current	I	pu
Alternator power angle	δ	deg
Alternator field excitation voltage	E ₅	pu
Alternator field excitation current	I ₅	pu
Alternator efficiency	η_{ac}	pu
DC traction motor efficiency	$\eta_{ ext{dc}}$	pu
Solid-state controller total loss	P ₆	kW
Solid-state controller firing angle	α	deg
Net propulsion energy	$^{ m E}$ 2 to 4	kWh
Net energy for all losses	$^{ m E}$ 3 to 4	kWh
Alternator armature current (per phase)	I_4	pu

^{*} The order of the output quantities in the table corresponds to the sequence in which they appear in the computer tabular outputs.

Table 3

Thermal Outputs During

Wayside Charging and Traveling Modes (FOR 26. DAT)*

Parameter	Symbol	Units
DC traction motor total loss	P ₅	kW
DC traction motor rotor input power	P _{rdc}	kW
DC traction motor stator input power	P s dc	kW
DC traction motor gap cooling power	P dc out	kW
DC traction motor rotor temperature rise	Trdc	°C
DC traction motor stator temperature rise	T s dc	°C
DC traction motor gap temperature rise	T gdc	°C
Solid-state controller (PDR) heating rate	P ₆	kW
Solid-state controller (PDR) cooling rate	P ₆	kW
Solid-state controller (PDR) junction temp. rise	0 0.0	°C
Alternator total loss	P ₇	kW
Alternator rotor input power	P r ac	kW
Alternator stator input power	P s ac	kW
Alternator gap cooling power	Pac out	kW
Alternator rotor temperature rise	T _r ac	°C
Alternator stator temperature rise	T sac	°C
Alternator gap temperature rise	T gac	°C

^{*} The order of the output quantities in the table corresponds to the sequence in which they appear in the computer tabular outputs.

Table 4

Tabular Summary of Key Parameters and

Their Peak Values*

FLYWHEEL VEHICLE SIMULATION VEHICLE EQUIVALENT WEIGHT = 13222, LBS VEHICLE FRONTAL AREA = 53.20 SQ-FT 1 = 45.0 SLUG-FT-SOD RESISTANCE COEFFICIENTS : G00550. = A B = .000175C = .610000 TOTAL TRAVELING TIME = 1.1319 HRS TOTAL DIST. TRAVELED = 20.67 HI. PEAK HEADWIND = 30,0 MPH PEAK VELOCITY = 30.0 MPH PEAK ACCEL . = 1.00 MPH/SEC PEAK DECEL. = -1.00 MPH/SEC PEAK GRADE = -10,0 PERCENT PEAK THRUST = 1903, LBS PEAK PROPULSION POWER = 84.96 KW PEAK DC LOSS = 22.02 KH PEAK AC LOSS = 74.04 KW PEAK TOTAL POWER = 196,4 KW PEAK DC ARM, CURRENT = 2.186 PU PEAK AC ARM. CURRENT = 3.563 PU PEAK AC POWER FACTOR ANGLE = 180.0 DEG PEAK AC POWER ANGLE = -70.2 DEG PEAK AC FIELD CURRENT = 8,967 PU PEAK AC FIELD VOLTAGE = 7.835 PU PEAK DC ROTOR TEMP ABOVE AMB. = 51.3 DEG C PEAK DC STATOR TEMP ABOVE AMB. = 23.6 DEG C PEAK AC ROTOR TEMP ABOVE AMB. = 321.5 DEG C PEAK AC STATOR TEMP ABOVE AMB. = 372.8 DEG C PEAK POR JUNCTION TEMP ABOVE AMB. = 155.8 DEG C

PEAK HEAT SINK TEMP ABOVE AMB. = 36,5 DEG C

^{*}Total traveling time and distance traveled for a computer run of five consecutive mission cycles.

<u>Fable 5</u> Key System Parameter Listing

(Masthead for Output Plots)

FLYWHEEL VEHICLE SIMULATION PADS* CONFIGURATION NO. 1 THERMAL PLOTS

VEHICLE EQUIV. WT. : 13222. LB

FRONTAL AREA : 53.0 SQ-FT

DRAG COEFF. : 0.610

TIRE FRICT. COEFF.: ROLLING = 0.0230

COULOMB = 0.000175 PER MPH

WIND VELOCITY : 30. MPH (RETARDING)-OUTBOUND LEG

-30. MPH (AIDING) - RETURN LEG

FLYWHEEL : I = 45.0 SLUG-FT-SQD

MAX SPEED = $12000 \cdot RPM$

INITIAL SPEED = 6000 RPM

ROADWAY/VELOCITY : MAX SPEED = 30. MPH

PROFILE NO. 1 TOTAL DISTANCE = 4.13 MILES

MAX GRADE = 10.0 PERCENT

TOTAL TRAVEL TIME = 0.2264 HR

TRACTION MOTOR : 70.2 HP RATING AT 2730 RPM

TERM. VOLT. = 420. V

BASE ARM. CUR. = 140. A

POR : FULL WAVE 3-PHASE TYPE

ALTERNATOR : 75.8 KVA AT 12000. RPM, 3-PHASE

L-TO-N TERM. VOLT.= 215. V (CONST.)

BASE ARM. CUR. = 73.2 A/PHASE

WAYSIDE RECHARGE AT CONSTANT ARMATURE CURRENT

PROPULSION ENERGY	MOTORING	BRAKING
WALNUT TO ENGR. STA: KW-HRS	= · 3 · 4739	-0-1018
ENGR. TO WALNUT STA; KW-HRS	= 1.8396	-0.4916
ROUND TRIP; KW-HRS	= 5.3136	-0.5934

DATE OF RUN : 28-JUNE-76

^{*} Propulsion and Distribution System

for a plot is also provided on left side of each output plot. The actual plotting is done off-line by a Calcomp plotter. The three following sets of plots are generated, all using mission time as the abscissa:

A power plot shows: propulsion power during the traveling mode and charging power during the way-side charging mode; power from the flywheel; and total power losses in the major components.

A dynamic plot shows: the flywheel energy; the dc traction motor armature current; and the solid-state controller firing angle.

A thermal plot shows the temperature rise of the hottest element of each thermally-modeled component: the armature of the dc traction motor; the stator of the alternator; and one thyristor junction of the solid-state controller.

To facilitate comparisons among these three plots, the first three channels of each plot show the vehicle velocity profile, roadway grade profile, and computed tractive force. Samples of these plots are shown in Figs. 18 thru 21.

If flywheel-spin-down, which results either from an undersized flywheel, or from too much drain, does not permit the alternator to generate the required ac voltage, a special feature of the simulation stops the program and prints an error message that prevents further useless computation.

Calculation of Propulsion Power and Auxiliary Power Requirements

The total power required from the flywheel at any instant of travel time is the sum of three requirements:

Propulsion power

Auxiliary power

Total power losses

Because the detailed simulation of the loss process for all of the major components represents a basic departure from a conventional approach, it will be described in a separate section. The methods for computing the auxiliary and propulsion power requirements at each instant of time are more conventional. Since auxiliary power is the least significant power requirement, it warrants only brief discussion.

The required auxiliary power has been estimated in the simulation. Its value can vary widely as a function of the ambient temperature of the day and related heating or cooling requirements of the vehicle interior. The requirement is modeled as a constant 3-phase load of 6 kW, 0.8 PF lag, during the traveling and charging modes. It is supplied from the alternator during motoring, from the solid-state controller during regenerative braking, and from the wayside power connector during wayside charging.

The methods used to determine the required propulsion power are well-known. The propulsion power at any instant of travel time is the product of the tractive force and the vehicle velocity. Velocity is a known input to the simulation. Tractive force is calculated as the sum of four component forces:

Inertia

Gravity

Tire friction

Aerodynamic drag .

Inertia forces are the forces required to change vehicle velocity to conform to the velocity profile. They are the product of the vehicle equivalent mass and the slope of the vehicle velocity/time profile

(acceleration). The vehicle equivalent mass is the sum of the actual vehicle mass and the referred value of the rotary inertia of those rotating parts whose speed is directly proportional to vehicle speed, such as the drive-wheels and the dc traction motor. For example, for an equivalent vehicle mass of 13,222 lb and an acceleration of 1.4 mi/h/s, the inertia force is 884 lb.

Gravity forces equal the product of the vehicle equivalent weight and the sine of the roadway grade angle above the horizontal. For the same vehicle on a 5 percent grade, the gravity force is 661 lb.

Tire friction forces result from the resistance of the roadway to tire motion. They depend on vehicle weight and velocity, tire pressure, and tire design. The tire friction model used here, which is based on nominal conditions, is:

$$F_{tire} = \mu W (1 + C_c V) (MF)$$
 lb

where:

 μ = rolling friction coefficient (0.0230 lb/lb)

W = vehicle weight (12,238 lb)

 C_c = coulomb friction coefficient (1.75 x 10⁻⁴ h/mi)

v = vehicle velocity (ft/s)

 MF = mass factor-ratio of equivalent to actual mass.

For example, for a vehicle velocity of 30 mi/h, the tire friction force is 306 lb.

Aerodynamic drag forces result from the air resistance to vehicle velocity and wind velocity. For this simulation, the wind speed is taken as constant (30 mi/h) in a vehicle frame of reference. The wind speed opposes vehicle motion during the uphill outbound segment of the trip and aids it during the downhill inbound segment. The drag force model is:

$$F_{drag} = 1/2 \rho (V + V_w)^2 \frac{\left(V + V_w\right)}{\left(V + V_w\right)} C_d A \qquad lb$$

where:

 ρ = air density at sea level (0.002378 slugs/ft³)

V = vehicle velocity (ft/s)

 V_{w} = wind velocity (ft/s) (negative for tailwind)

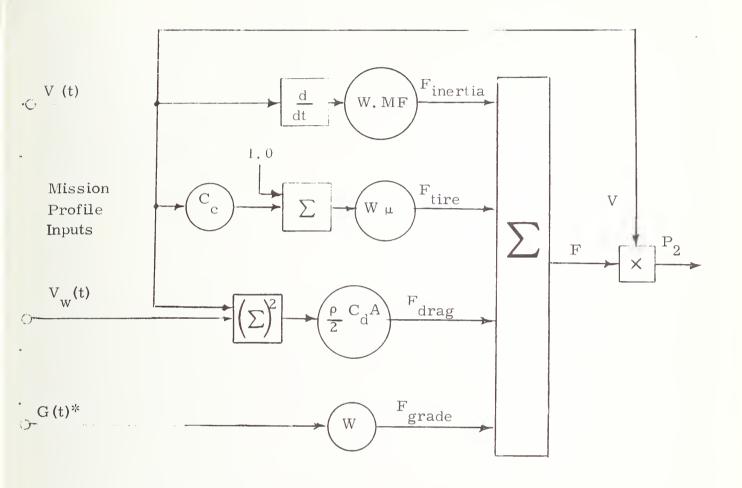
C = vehicle drag coefficent (0.61)

A = vehicle frontal area (53.0 ft²).

For example, for the same vehicle at a velocity of 30 mi/h and a head-wind of 30 mi/h, the aerodynamic drag force is 298 lb.

The sum of the force components for the 13,222 lb vehicle accelerating at 1.4 mi/h/s, at a velocity of 30 mi/h, on a 5 percent grade and against a

headwind of 30 mi/h, is 2,109 lb. A flowchart for computing the tractive force and propulsion power is shown in Fig. 9.



*If grade profile input is provided in the form of G (x) rather than G (t), then G (t) = G (x) $_t$ x V (t).

Fig. 9

Flowchart for Computing

Tractive Force F and Propulsion Power \mathbf{P}_2



4. MODELS

Procedure

Calculation of the power losses in the energy-storage unit and the power train is required in the simulation in order to compute the power delivered by the flywheel and the temperatures of the components at each instant of travel time. The power loss for each component is calculated by a two-step process, using first the dynamic model, then the power loss model for the component. The power loss model utilizes as inputs the electrical variables and speeds which are the outputs of the dynamic model. The temperature rises for the electric machines and the thyristors in the controller are calculated in a third step, using thermal models for the components and the losses from the power loss models. These models are derived in this section; numerical values for the parameters are given for the components of the baseline system. In order to use the simulation as a design tool, and to vary the machine ratings, the relationships are given in terms of the linear dimension of the electric machines between the power ratings, loss components and electrical parameters.

Dynamic and Power Loss Models

The dynamic models of each component of the electric propulsion system are basically the equations that relate the input and output variables. The dynamic models of the electric machines are more complicated than the other components. The models are sets of equations that relate the speed and torque of the electric machines to the electrical variables of current and voltage. These equations are based on the machine parameters of resistance, reactance, and saturation, which are either obtained from the manufacturer or calculated from the per-unit quantities for machines of the same type and size.

The power loss models are sets of equations that relate the electrical variables and speeds of the major components to their power losses. These models are generally more elaborate for the baseline system components that are expected to exhibit the largest losses, i.e., the lowest efficiencies. The most elaborate loss models, each including five separate loss terms, are for the alternator and the dc traction motor. A two-term loss model describes the solid-state controller losses. The model that represents the transmission losses is simplest, since a constant percentage of the input is assumed lost in that component power. The flywheel mechanical losses (friction and windage)

were not modeled, since test data for representative flywheels running in evacuated enclosures were not available, but could be added at a later date if necessary. Flywheel losses are expected to be small and could be lumped with the alternator friction and windage losses.

As the flywheel is spun-up in the wayside charging mode, the only losses occur in the alternator, which is used as a motor, while the solid-state controller, dc traction motor, and transmission are not in operation. The auxiliary load is assumed to be supplied from the wayside power connector. During the traveling mode, regardless of the direction of power, all four major components develop losses.

Part of the output of the simulation is a tabulation of all of the electrical variables, machine speeds, loss terms, component losses, and total losses. In a further calculation, the component losses are used with the thermal models to obtain the temperatures of the components at each instant of travel time.

The dynamic and loss models are developed in this section in the order of calculation at each time increment of the computer program,

that is, from the drive wheels through the propulsion system to the flywheel. Hence the dc traction motor model, which effectively includes the gear box is addressed first, followed by the controller and the alternator. The alternator is the most complicated of the component models.

<u>DC Traction Motor</u>. The equations for the dynamic model of the dc traction motor are given in Appendix A. Basically, the armature current is computed from the tractive force at the drive-wheels as reflected through the gearbox. The motor speed is also related to the drive-wheel speed.

The equations can be written in per-unit terms or in terms of the variables in ohms, volts, amps, r/\min , etc. The per-unit terms are more convenient because the value of the variable conveys its proportion to the rating of the machine; $I_0 = 0.5 \, \mathrm{pu}$, for example, means that the armature current is at half its base value. An additional advantage is that for small changes of the power rating of the machine, the per-unit parameters hardly change; the same equations can usually be used.

Before the per-unit equations for the dynamic model can be written, the base quantities, corresponding to 1.0 pu, must be given for the machine. Usually, these quantities are the nameplate rated quantities. The base quantities for the dc traction motor used in the base-line system are given in Table 6.

Table 6					
DC	Traction	Motor	Base	Quantities	

Armature current	I _o	=	140 A
Armature voltage	V _{dc}	=	420 V
Armature resistance	R a _{dc}	=	3.0 Ω
Speed	N	=	2730 r/min
Torque	Т	=	135 lb/ft
Mechanical power	P _m	=	52.3 kW (70 hp)

The five equations for the power loss model are written in terms of the per-unit variables but yield the power loss components in kW. The equations for the armature circuit copper and independent field losses (D $_1$ and D $_2$) are derived from the circuit resistances. The equation for friction, windage, and iron losses (D $_3$) assumes a variation with speed to the 2.5 power. The stray load loss (D $_4$) is taken as 1 percent of the mechanical power. The brush loss (D $_5$) is derived from a constant 2-V brush drop. The five equations in perunit variables yield the following loss components in kW:

$$D_1$$
 = 4.10 I_a^2 - Armature circuit copper loss

 D_2 = 0.288 (N)^{2.5} - Independent field loss

 D_3 = 1.56 (N/2730) - Friction, windage, and iron losses

 D_4 = 10^{-2} P_m* - Stray load loss

 D_5 = 0.280 I_0 - Brush loss.

* In the computer program, the variable $P_m(in D_4)$ is expressed as P_2/η_{gb} for motoring and $P_2 \times \eta_{gb}$ for braking, where P_2 is the propulsion power at the wheels and η_{gb} is the gearbox efficiency (0.92).

The sum of the loss components calculated at the base conditions from the power-loss equations must yield the losses at the base conditions calculated from the efficiency. The loss components for the baseline system's dc traction motor are shown in Table 7. The manufacturer usually supplies the armature resistance, field resistance, and full-load efficiency.

Table 7

DC Traction Motor Loss Components at Base Conditions

 D_1 = 4.10 kW- Armature circuit copper loss D_2 = 0.29 kW- Independent field loss = 1.56 kW D_{2} - Friction, windage, and iron losses D_{A} = 0.52 kW- Stray load loss D_{5} = 0.28 kW- Brush loss = 6.75 kW P_{5} - Total loss

The stray load and brush loss components can be found as previously described. The friction, windage, and iron loss component makes up the remainder of the losses, which can be calculated from the efficiency, i.e. once the efficiency is known.

Solid-State Controller. The equations for the dynamic model of the controller relate the dc output voltage and current to the ac input voltage and current and yield the controller firing angle as a dependent variable. The power loss model does not require the results of the dynamic model calculation. The power losses consist of two components: the thyristor forward drop losses and the snubber network losses. Forward drop loss of this 6-thyristor controller are based on typical values. Forward drop loss is assumed to vary with direct current and is taken at 0.3 kW/100 A, i.e., 3 V drop. Snubber network losses are assumed to be 1 percent of the output power of the solid-state controller. When the dc traction motor delivers its rated output, the sum of both loss terms is roughly 1 kW.

Alternator. The dynamic model for the alternator is much more complicated than the model for the traction motor, for the following reasons. First, since the alternator is an ac machine, the stator electrical quantities must be expressed in complex numbers to identify magnitude and phase of the currents and voltages. Second, the baseline alternator operates over a range of speeds, typically from 0.5 to 1.0 pu; practically all conventional alternator analysis is based on constant-speed operation. Third, to obtain a sufficiently accurate dynamic model, the alternator must be represented in its

direct and quadrature (d-q) axes. Fourth, because the alternator will operate down to a speed of 0.5 pu and at high field current to maintain terminal voltage, saturation of the magnetic circuit must be included in the model.

The equations for the dynamic model, which are given in Appendix A, use the standard machine impedance, d-q axis representation, and the Kingsley method for saturation correction. They describe the operation of the alternator in the traveling mode, as the flywheel and alternator speed declines from 1.0 pu to as low as 0.5 pu; or in the wayside charging mode, with the alternator operating as a synchronous motor as the speed rises from 0.5 pu to 1.0 pu. In the traveling mode, the alternator delivers energy to the solid-state controller and supplies the auxiliary load; the terminal voltage is held constant over the speed range. In the wayside charging mode, the alternator receives power from the wayside inverter.

The per-unit system used for the dynamic model defines the currents, voltages, and reactances at the base ω_0 = 1.0 pu. At other than base speed, the per-unit reactance is multiplied by the per-unit speed to reflect the effect of the frequency on the reactances. If the per-unit

impedances are not provided by the manufacturer for a specific alternator, typical per-unit values can be obtained for alternators of the same similar rating and speed from a handbook. The per-unit impedances for the baseline alternator -- a 75-kVA, 12,000-r/min, 4-pole unit -- have been provided by Westinghouse and are given in Table 8.

Γable 8							
Alternator Per-Unit Impedances							
r a ac	=	0.0495		- Resistance (200°C)			
x _d	=	3.40		- D-axis unsaturated reactance			
x q	Ξ	1.24		- Q-axis reactance			
x a		0.085		- Leakage reactance			
$x_{d}^{\dagger\dagger}$	=	0.145		- Subtransient reactance			

Ratings - The power and speed rating of the alternator determine its physical size and its ability to carry continuous load. Selection of an alternator should be based on three criteria: (1) its ability to provide peak power at some point in the mission; (2) its energy losses between wayside charging stations; and (3) its maximum internal temperature

as compared to the allowable temperature. For an alternator running at one speed and variable load, the rating can be selected by calculating the rms current over an operating period. However, for an alternator operating over a range of speed and load, as in a flywheel energy-storage vehicle, the selection can best be made by using the dynamic, loss, and thermal models described in this report.

After power and speed ratings are determined, the alternator voltage rating must be selected. For a given power rating and frame, the voltage and current ratings of the machine are like scale factors.

Any values can be used, provided their product yields the given power rating. However, the ratings selected will significantly affect the alternator power losses. In the traveling mode, the alternator is assumed to operate at constant terminal voltage, while the speed ranges from 1.0 pu to 0.5 pu. If, on one hand, the rated voltage is set equal to the required voltage, then at 0.5 pu speed the alternator must be capable of twice the air-gap flux density developed at 1.0 pu speed. The field current and field losses will be high at low speed. If, on the other hand, the rated voltage is set equal to twice the required voltage, then the increase of stator turns will raise the armature resistance and make the armature losses high at all speeds. In the baseline alternator, the rated voltage was expressed as a rewind

factor (RWF) times the original 115 V/phase rating of the machine.

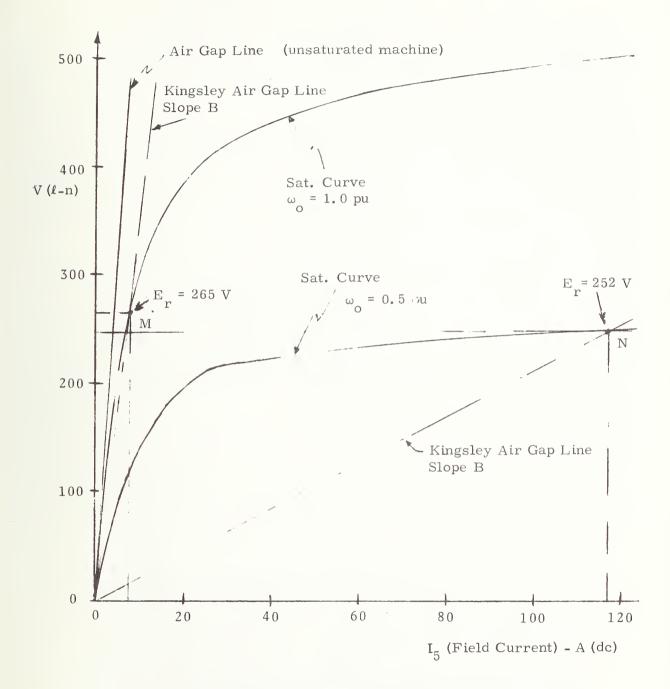
A rewind factor of 3.0 was selected.

The base quantities for the alternator used in the baseline system are shown in Table 9.

Table 9 Alternator Base Quantities

Power	Р	=	75.8 kVA
Voltage	v_t	=	345 V (l-n)
Armature current	\mathbf{I}_4	=	73.2 A
Speed	ωο	=	12,000 r/min
Field current	I ₅	=	14.3 A
Base impedance	$Z_{\hat{o}}$	Ξ	4.70Ω

The saturation curves for the baseline alternator are shown in Fig. 10 for $\omega_{_{\scriptsize O}}$ = 1.0 pu and 0.5 pu. The saturation curve for $\omega_{_{\scriptsize O}}$ = 1.0 pu was supplied by the manufacturer. The saturation curve for $\omega_{_{\scriptsize O}}$ = 0.5 pu, or for any other speed, is merely scaled down vertically by $\omega_{_{\scriptsize O}}$ pu for each value of field current. For the alternator under load, the saturation curve is assumed to represent the air-gap voltage $E_{_{\scriptsize T}}$ vs. the net



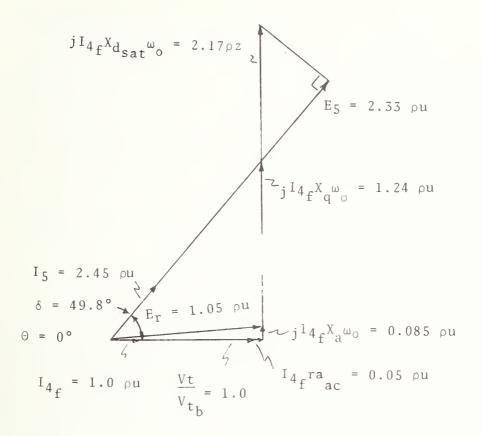
*Air gap voltages (E_r) for dc traction motor operating at rated power and speed.

Fig. 10
Saturation Curves for Alternator

direct-axis ampere turns expressed in equivalent field amperes. At no-load condition, of course, the air-gap voltage is identical with the terminal voltage; the net direct-axis ampere turns are merely the field ampere turns.

The air-gap voltage point represents the degree of saturation of the machine. For base operation with PF = 1.0, the air-gap voltage is E_r = 362 V (Point O). For conditions when the dc traction motor is operating at rated 70 hp and rated 2730 r/min while the alternator is running at ω_0 = 1.0 pu, the air-gap voltage is E_r = 265 V (Point M); i.e., in other words, the alternator is less saturated than it is during base operation. For the same load, but with the alternator running at ω_0 = 0.5 pu, the alternator is heavily saturated at E_r = 252 V (Point N).

Phasor diagrams - The dynamic model of the alternator is expressed as a phasor diagram. It is used to calculate air-gap voltage \mathbf{E}_r and the field current \mathbf{I}_5 at each instant of time during the mission to obtain two of the five loss components. The phasor diagram for the alternator at base conditions is shown in Fig. 11. The air-gap voltage \mathbf{E}_r is calculated first to find the degree of saturation; the position of the direct axis, identified with the power angle δ , is calculated next using the quadrature-axis reactance \mathbf{x}_q . The magnetizing portion of the direct-axis reactance $(\mathbf{x}_d - \mathbf{x}_a)$ is corrected for



*Alternator base conditions: 345 V (\ell-n); 75.8 kW; 1.0 PF; 12,000 r/min.

Fig. 11

Alternator Phasor Diagram, Traveling Mode:
Generator Operation at Alternator Base Conditions*

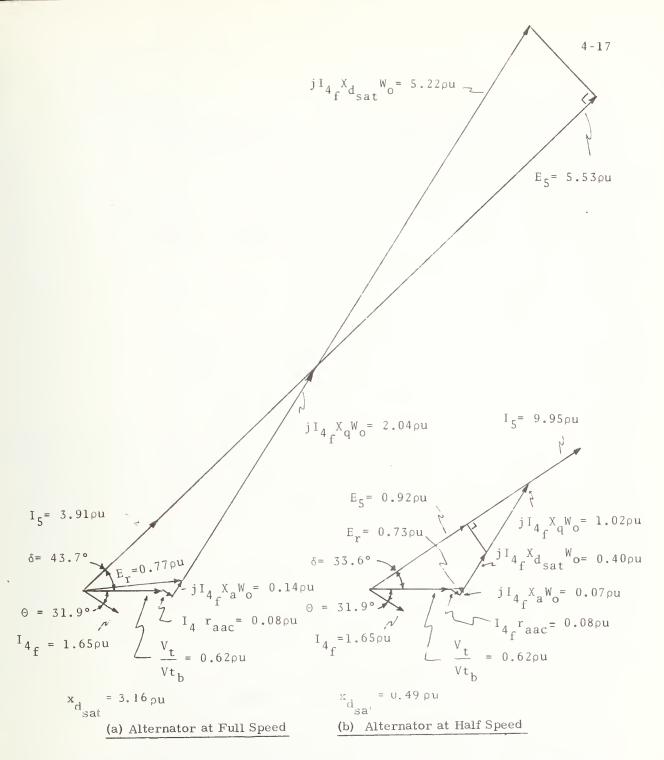
saturation using the slope of the Kingsley air-gap line through the air-gap voltage point, as shown in Fig. 10. The diagram is finally completed to find the excitation voltage ${\bf E}_5$. To find the field current in amperes, the per-unit excitation voltage must be corrected for saturation by using the ratio of the slopes of the Kingsley air-gap line relative to the base air-gap line. For example:

Corrected
$$E_5 = E_5/\text{slope ratio} = 2.33 \text{ pu/} 0.954 = 2.45 \text{ pu}$$

 $I_5 = 2.45 \text{ pu} \times 14.3 \text{ A} = 35 \text{ A}$.

The phasor diagrams for the alternator at two points in the traveling mode are shown in Fig. 12. These diagrams correspond to the conditions of the flywheel and alternator at full speed and half speed while the dc traction motor is running at its base conditions. The operating points are also shown on the saturation curves of Fig. 10. The terminal voltage is 0.62 pu or 215 V; the armature current is 1.65 pu or 121 A, at PF = 0.85 lag.

As Fig. 10 shows, at full speed, point M, the alternator is hardly saturated; the field current is 3.91 pu, or 56 A. At half speed, point N, the alternator is heavily saturated. Since the field current is 9.95 pu, or 142 A, both the armature and field losses are extremely high. Over a typical mission, the alternator might have to carry even higher

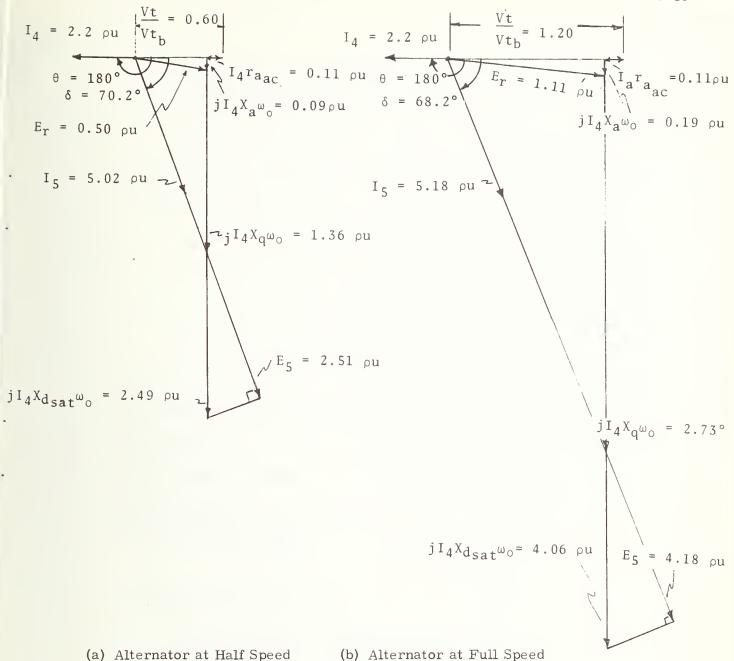


*Alternator Operation: 215 V (ℓ -n); 66.1 kW; 0.85 PF lag; 12,000 and 6,000 r/min. Fig. 12

Alternator Phasor Diagrams, Traveling Mode:
Generator Operation at DC Traction Motor Base Conditions*

armature currents to support the tractive force requirements of the dc traction motor. If such high armature currents occur when the flywheel has run down to half speed, the alternator field current might be even higher than the 9.95 pu value, and increased losses, proportional to ${\rm I}_5^{\ 2}$ would result.

The phasor diagrams for the alternator operating as a synchronous motor at points in the wayside charging mode are shown in Fig. 13. These diagrams are based on 2.2 pu armature current at PF = 1.0. The terminal voltage increases linearly with speed to a final value of 1.2 pu when the alternator is at rated speed. During the charging period, at half speed, the alternator is not saturated; the field current is 5.02 pu, or 71.8 A. At full speed, the alternator is partially saturated; the field current is 5.18, or 74.0 A. The field current is practically constant during this mode of operation. The alternator operating as a motor could operate at even higher power, and thus, shorten the charging time if the final value of the terminal voltage were raised above 1.2 pu. However, the field current and losses, as well as the temperature rise, would be higher than for the assumed charging condition. The limitation on charging is the pull-out power for the alternator, operating as a synchronous motor.



*Input to Machine: At half speed, 207 V, 100 kW; at full speed, 414 V, 200 kW.

Fig. 13

Alternator Phasor Diagrams, Wayside Charging Mode:
Alternator Operating as a Synchronous Motor*

Power loss model - The five equations for the power loss model are written in terms of the per-unit variables but yield the power loss components in kW. The equations for the armature and field circuit copper losses (A₁ and A₂) are derived from the circuit resistances, including that of the exciter. The equation for the iron loss (A₃) assumes a variation with air-gap voltage, to the 2.0 power. The air-gap voltage is proportional to the product of speed and flux. The friction and windage loss (A₄) is assumed to vary as ω_0^3 . The stray load loss (A₅) has a constant term and a term dependent upon armature current. The five equations in per-unit variables for the baseline alternator yield the following loss components in kW:

$$A_1$$
 = 3.94 I_4 - Armature copper loss

 A_2 = 0.280 + 0.24 I_5 - Exciter and field circuit copper loss

 A_3 = 1.45 E_r^2 - Iron loss

 A_4 = 2.05 ω_0^3 - Friction and windage loss

 A_5 = 0.207 + 1.67 I_4^2 - Stray load loss.

At the base conditions, the sum of the loss components given by the power-loss equations must equal the known total loss of the alternator. The loss components for the alternator are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Alternator Loss Components at Base Conditions

A_1	= 3.94 kW	- Armature copper loss
A ₂	= 1.63 kW	- Exciter and field circuit copper loss
A ₃	= 1.60 kW	- Iron loss
${\rm A}_4$	= 2.04 kW	- Friction and windage loss
A ₅	= 0.39 kW	- Stray load loss
P ₇	= 9.60 kW	- Total loss

The manufacturer usually supplies the armature and field circuit resistances and the full-load efficiency. Once efficiency is known, the total loss in kW can be calculated. The loss components A_3 , A_4 , and A_5 can be allocated using typical values from a handbook or text on electric machine design.

The alternator losses during the traveling mode, when the dc traction motor is operating at its base condition (2730 r/min and 70 hp), are shown in Table 11 for two conditions: when the alternator is at full speed and at half speed. These operating points correspond to the phasor diagrams in Fig. 12. Because the armature current is 1.65 pu,

both the armature and the field losses are higher than for the base conditions of Table 10. Compared to the base loss of only 9.60 kW, the total loss varies from 19.4 kW at full speed to 37.5 kW at half speed. The relative magnitude of the total loss at full speed and at half speed can be shifted by selecting the base voltage for the alternator. Selecting a base voltage higher than 345 V will reduce the field loss A_2 but raise the armature resistance and thus the armature loss A_1 . Selecting a base voltage lower than 345 V will produce the opposite effects on the loss components A_1 and A_2 .

Table 11

Alternator Loss Components During Traveling Mode*

Loss Component	Alter	nator	
	Full-speed	Half-speed	
A_1	11.6 kW	11.6 kW -	Armature copper loss
A_2	4.0 kW	24.0 kW -	Exciter and field circuit copper loss
A_3	0.9 kW	0.8 kW -	Iron loss
${\rm A}_4$	2.1 kW	0.3 kW -	Friction and windage loss
A ₅	0.8 kW	0.8 kW -	Stray load loss
P ₇	19.4 kW	37.5 kW -	Total loss

^{*} Constant Load of 78.0 kVA, 66.1 kW, 215 V (1-n)

The alternator losses during wayside charging are shown in Table 12 for the alternator at half speed and at full speed. Compared to the base losses of only 9.60 kW, the total losses are practically constant, ranging from 27.2 kW to 30.8 kW.

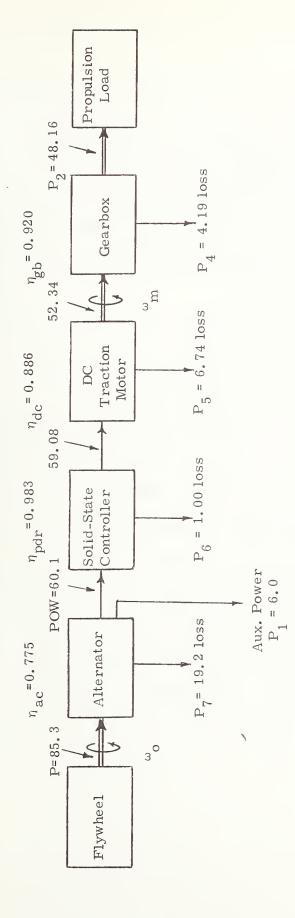
Table 12

Alternator Losses During Wayside Charging Mode*

Loss Component	Altern	nator
	Half-speed	Full-speed
A ₁	19.1 kW	19.1 kW - Armature copper loss
$^{\mathrm{A}}2$	6.3 kW	6.7 kW - Exciter and field circuit copper loss
A_3	0.4 kW	1.8 kW - Iron loss
${\rm A}_4$	0.3 kW	2.1 kW - Friction and windage loss
A ₅	1.1 kW	1.1 kW - Stray load loss
P ₇	27.2 kW	30.8 kW - Total loss

^{*}Armature current 2.2 pu; PF = 1.0 (motoring); terminal voltage proportion to speed, up to 1.2 pu at full speed.

Propulsion System Losses. The combination of the dynamic and power loss models for the energy-storage unit and power-train components will yield both the component and the overall propulsion system power losses at each instant of time during the mission cycle. For example, the component losses when the dc traction motor is running at its base condition and the flywheel is at full speed are shown in Fig. 14. The dc traction motor is delivering 70 hp, or 48 kW, at the drive-wheels. The flywheel must supply 85.3 kW to overcome the alternator and power-train losses and provide the required auxiliary load of 6 kW. The overall propulsion-system efficiency is 62 percent. If the flywheel were running at less than full speed and/ or the dc traction motor providing more than its base torque of 135 lb ft, the propulsion-system losses would be even greater than those under base conditions.



Note: Power in kW. Efficiency in pu.

*DC traction motor operating at Base Conditions of 135 lb ft torque and $2730 \ r/\mathrm{min}$ speed. Flywheel operating at 12,000 r/min (ω_0 = 1.0).

Power and Efficiency of Electric Propulsion System Components*

Fig. 14

Thermal Models

The temperatures of the major components of the drive system at each instant of travel time are calculated by using thermal models. The power losses required for the calculation are obtained from the power loss models. The maximum component temperatures show whether the components have been properly selected to withstand the service conditions of the vehicle.

The insulations of rotating electric machines, i.e., the alternator and dc traction motor, are assigned maximum allowable hot spot temperatures by the manufacturer. Whenever the operating temperature exceeds the allowable temperature, the service life of the machine is reduced, typically by a factor of two for each 10°C that the limit is exceeded. If temperature excesses are large, e.g., more than 60°C, complete failure of the component may result. If the machine does not reach its temperature limit, even during heaviest conditions of load, the machine has been selected too conservatively and will be too heavy. One purpose of the simulation is to provide the designer with means for selecting optimal ratings for the major components of the drive system.

Unlike the rotating electric machines, the thyristors in the solid-state controller will burn out if the junction temperature exceeds the allowable value even for a fraction of a second. The temperature rise can be reduced by selecting larger thyristors with greater thermal mass and conductivity and/or selecting thyristor heat sinks with greater thermal mass and higher heat dissipation rates.

Thermal models were not developed for the gearbox nor the flywheel.

The gearbox losses are small and its temperature rise is therefore not expected to be large. Furthermore, because the gearbox has a large heat capacity, the effects of overheating would not be drastic.

The flywheel does not require a thermal model to calculate the temperature of its bearings. They must be selected to withstand full speed regardless of the mission of the vehicle.

The thermal models use lumped parameters of thermal mass and thermal conductivity to represent the actual distributed parameters of the electric machines and the thyristors of the solid-state controller. The power losses are the independent variables (inputs); the temperatures are the dependent variables (outputs). Since the temperature variation lags in time the power loss inputs, vehicle operation must

be simulated long enough -- i.e., over several mission cycles -- to allow the temperature variations to reach a steady-state pattern.

Rotating Electric Machines. Similar thermal models are used for the alternator and dc traction motor. The rotor is represented by one thermal mass and the stator by a second thermal mass. Additional lumped elements can be used at the discretion of the modeler; two thermal masses are sufficiently accurate for demonstrating the simulation procedure.

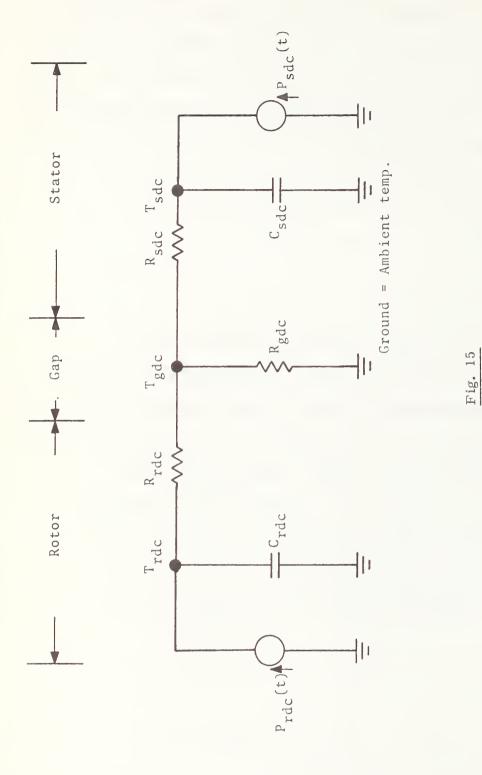
For convenience, the differential equations of the thermal models are obtained from thermal-to-electrical analogs. Thermal capacitance of each mass is the product of that mass and its specific heat. Thermal resistance is a measure of the temperature differential required to obtain a given rate of heat flow. The thermal-to-electrical analog equivalents are given in Table 13.

Table 13	
Thermal-to-Electric	Analogs

Temperature	T	Voltage	V
Thermal Resistance	l/Ah	Resistance	R
Thermal Mass	mC _p	Capacitance	С
Heat Rate	Q	Current	Ι
Thermal Energy	Q	Charge	Q

The electric circuit that represents the analog equations of the thermal model for the dc traction motor is shown in Fig. 15. The current sources are the heat rates, i.e., the power losses, of the rotor and the stator. The temperatures of the rotor, air gap, and stator are the node variables with respect to ground, i.e., the ambient temperature. The same thermal model of Fig. 15, with suitable symbols, represents the equations for the thermal model of the alternator.

The parameters required to construct a thermal model of a rotating electric machine are not provided by the manufacturer. They must be estimated from the weight of the machine, the losses, and the temperature when the machine is operated at rated conditions. The weight must be divided between the rotor and stator; an average specific heat, such as 0.11 cal/g/°C, is used for the copper and iron portions to calculate the thermal masses. The losses must also be divided between the rotor and stator. Thermal resistances are calculated by using the rated temperature, the ambient temperature, and an estimate of the intermediate air-gap temperature. The calculations for the thermal models of the baseline electric machines are given in Appendix A.



Thermal Circuit Model for DC Traction Motor

Although the power loss models provide five loss components for the alternator and the dc traction motor, the thermal models require as inputs only the total rotor loss and the total stator loss. These losses are allocated in the thermal models by the two following equations, which incorporate the weighting coefficients $R_{\rm di}$ and $S_{\rm di}$:

$$P_{rdc} = R_{d1}D_1 + R_{d2}D_2 + R_{d3}D_3 + R_{d4}D_4 + R_{d5}D_5$$

$$P_{sdc} = S_{d1}D_1 + S_{d2}D_2 + S_{d3}D_3 + S_{d4}D_4 + S_{d5}D_5$$

where:

$$R_{di} + S_{di} = 1.0 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ...5.$$

In the alternator, all of the armature power loss D_1 occurs in the stator; hence, R_{d1} = 0 and S_{d1} = 1.0. In the dc traction motor, the armature power loss occurs in the series field and interpoles on the stator and in the armature winding on the rotor; the coefficients are thus allocated R_{d1} = 0.95 and S_{d1} = 0.05. The allocations either are obvious or must be made on a judgmental basis. The allocations for the alternator and dc traction motor are given in Table 14. No matter how the loss components are allocated, the total power loss must be discharged into the total thermal mass of each electric machine. Temperature errors, if any, between the rotor and stator of the two-mass

thermal model will occur only because the power loss components are not accurately assigned to the rotor or the stator.

Table 14
Weighting Coefficients for Thermal Models

of Electric Machines

Mach.	DC Machine					AC Machine				
Ele- ment	D ₁	D_2	D ₃	D_4	D ₅	A ₁	A ₂	A ₃	A ₄	A ₅
Rotor Stator	li l	l .	0.6	0.8	1.0	0	1.0	0.2	0.7	0.2

The flow chart for calculating the temperatures of the dc traction motor is shown in Fig. 16. The flow chart uses the parameters of thermal resistance R_r and R_s , as well as the thermal time constants R_r and R_s . The rotor and stator components of the power loss are the inputs; the dc traction motor temperatures are the outputs.

In the dc traction motor, the heat from the power losses is dissipated by convection to the air, which is blown through the air gap by fans at 400 ft³/min. In the alternator, the heat is dissipated by forcing an oil spray to circulate within the machine at a rate of 4 gal/min. The oil is cooled in an external heat exchanger. The numerical values

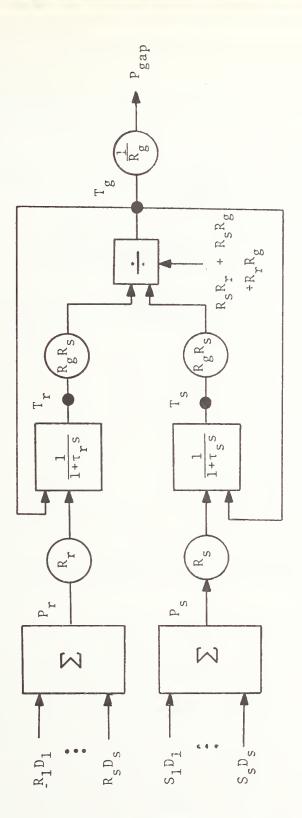


Fig. 16

Flowchart of Thermal Computations for DC Traction Motor

of the parameters for the thermal models of the electric machines are given in Table 15.

Thermal Resistances and Time Constants
for Electric Machines

Table 15

Parameter	DC Traction Motor	Alternator
Rotor-to-gap therm. res. R	8.2° C/kW	18.8° C/kW
Stator-to-gap therm. res. R _s	21.6° C/kW	7.4° C/kW
Gap-to-amb. therm. res. R	3.0° C/kW	3.0° C/kW
Rotor therm. time constant τ r	512 s	65 s
Stator therm. time constant τ s	1127 s	40 s

Solid-State Controller. The six thyristors of the controller are mounted on a common heat sink assembly which is cooled by convection and/or forced air. The thermal model for this component uses two lumped thermal masses: one for the six thyristor junctions; the second for heat sink assembly. The mass of the junctions is negligible compared to the heat sink assembly and can be neglected. The circuit in Fig. 17 represents the analog equations of the controller's thermal model.

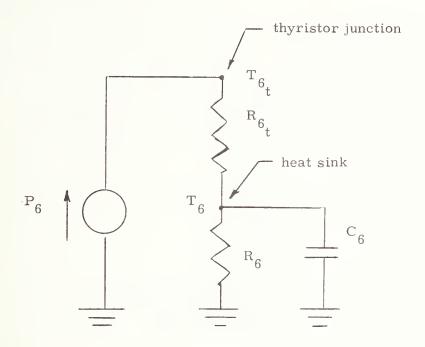


Fig. 17

Thermal Circuit Model for Solid-State Controller

The power loss is calculated as the sum of junction losses of all six thyristors. The junction-to-heat sink thermal resistance represents six thyristors in parallel. Manufacturers provide values of thermal resistance for their thyristors, and data from which thermal resistances and time constants of their heat sinks can be calculated. The parameters for the solid-state controller are given in Table 16.

Table 16

Thermal Resistances and Time Constants for Solid-State Controller

Junction-to-heat sink resistance	R _{6t}	58.8° C/kW
Heat sink-to-ambient resistance	R ₆	19.6° C/kW
Heat sink time constant	T ₆	18.4 s

Changing Ratings of Major Components

The simulation of the electric propulsion system is intended for both analysis and design purposes. The numerical values in the models of the simulation are based on the specific components of the baseline system. The simulation provides information on the electrical and mechanical variables, the power losses and the temperatures, as the vehicle carries out its mission. The specific components of the baseline system may have to be changed several times in the models in order to optimize the electric propulsion system. The changes in the components can result in such effects as reduction of energy losses over a mission cycle; change of recharging time; decrease of propulsion system weight; and reduction of component temperatures.

Changes can be made in the electric machines of speed and torque ratings, method of cooling and maximum temperature. Changes can be made in the controller by selecting different thyristors and heat sink assembly. The numerical values in the electric-machine models can be modified either by incorporating the values for the new machines, or by using dimensional-analysis on the baseline values to find the new values. Since machine electrical and thermal parameters vary slowly with changes in power rating, the dimensional-analysis technique to be described in this section is sufficiently accurate for changes of \pm 50% in power rating from the baseline conditions. For small changes of power rating, the per-unit machine ratings can be left unchanged.

Changes in Electrical Ratings of Electric Machine. The frame of an electric machine determines its torque rating. Its power rating is proportional to how fast the machine is run. Of course, many secondary factors must be considered, e.g., mechanical strength, losses, ventilation, commutation, and bearings. In this section, we will consider changes in the power ratings of the dc traction motor and the alternator, assuming that their rated speed is not changed.

The power rating P of any rotating electric machine, such as the alternator or dc traction motor, is of the dimensional form:

$$P = \ell^4 J B_m N,$$

where:

= linear dimension

J = current density

 B_{m} = flux density

N = speed .

Assume that the machine size is increased or decreased, i.e., by its linear dimension ℓ , without changing either the configuration, the densities, or the turns. Then, the copper and iron losses are proportional to ℓ^3 , which is the volume of material. The winding resistances both in ohms and in per-unit terms vary as ℓ^{-1} ; the winding inductances

in henries vary as ℓ , and the time constants vary as ℓ^2 . The pu alternator reactances at a given speed and frequency vary as ℓ . The friction and windage loss considered as a surface phenomenon can be assumed to vary as ℓ^2 .

Consider the 70-hp dc traction motor of the baseline system as an example of how the machine parameters vary with the linear dimension ℓ . Assume that the dc traction motor is found to operate with too low a temperature over a mission cycle. To increase the temperature the rating will be reduced to 60 hp and the mission cycle repeated. The parameters will change as follows:

Rating reduction
$$\ell^4 = (60/70) = 0.857$$
Linear dimension $\ell = (60/70) = 0.962$
Copper and iron loss (kW) $\ell^3 = (0.962)^3 = 0.890$
Resistance (pu) $\ell^{-1} = (0.962)^{-1} = 1.04$
Friction & windage loss (kW) $\ell^2 = (0.962)^2 = 0.927$.

These parameter changes are small. For a 0.14 pu reduction of power rating, the pu resistance increases by only 0.04 pu; the pu copper and iron losses at the new rating increase by only (0.890/0.857)-1 = 0.04 pu, as well.

The assumption of maintaining the same number of turns in the electric machine as its size is changed is merely a convenience.

The assumption washes out when the effects are expressed in pu.

After its size has been changed the machine can be wound for any combination of voltage and current that meets the new power rating.

Changes in Speed Ratings of Electric Machines. When the speed, current or voltage ratings of an electric machine, such as the alternator or dc traction motor, are changed, with or without a simultaneous change in linear dimension, the change in the parameters is more complicated than for a change of ℓ alone. Under the assumption of the same winding geometry (i. e. number of slots, space factor, and winding design) the voltage and current ratings can both be varied by a ratio k, which does not affect the power rating. The ratio k is defined as the turns ratio or the number of turns of the new machine divided by the number of turns on the original machine. Independent values of the turns ratio k can be assigned to the stator windings and the rotor windings. The parameters are now scaled as follows:

Power rating $\ell^4 N$ Current rating $\ell^2 k^{-1}$ Voltage rating $\ell^2 N k$

Resistance (Ω)	$\ell^{-1}k^2$
Inductance (H)	$l k^2$
Reactance (Ω)	$l N k^2$
Base impedance (Ω)	$_{ m N~k}^2$
Resistance (pu)	(& N) -1
Reactance (pu)	L
Copper loss (kW)	₁ 3
Copper loss (pu)	(_ℓ N) -1
Iron loss (kW)	$^{3}\mathrm{N}^{2}$
Iron loss (pu)	N 1 -1
Friction & windage loss (kW)	$\ell^2 N^3$
Friction & windage loss (pu)	$N^2 \ell^{-2}$
Excitation power loss (kW)	3 L
Excitation power loss (pu)	(L N) -1.

Consider the flywheel and alternator of the baseline system as an example of how the machine parameters vary with the linear dimension and the speed. Assume that the flywheel and alternator will be changed: the rated speed will be reduced from 12,000 r/min to 9,000 r/min and the power rating raised from 75 kVA to 100 kVA. The key parameters will change as follows:

Rating increase
$$\ell^4 N$$
 = $(100/75)$ = 1.33
Speed ratio N = $(9000/12,000)$ = 0.75
Linear dimension ℓ = $(1.33/0.75)^{1/4}$ = 1.155
Resistance (pu) $(\ell N)^{-1}$ = $(1.155 \times 0.75)^{-1}$ = 1.155
Reactance (pu) ℓ = (1.155) = 1.155
Copper loss (pu) $(\ell N)^{-1}$ = $(1.55 \times 0.75)^{-1}$ = 1.155
Iron loss (pu) $N\ell^{-1}$ = 0.75×1.155^{-1} = 0.65
Friction & windage $N^2 \ell^{-2}$ = $0.75^2 \times 1.155^{-2}$ = 0.42.

Changes in Electrical Rating of Solid-State Controller. The snubber network loss varies directly with the rating of the dc traction motor.

The thyristor forward drop power loss varies directly as the rated or base armature current of the dc traction motor, i.e., the loss coefficient is:

 $R_{2_b} = \frac{3}{1000} I_{a_b}$ kW.

Changes in Thermal Parameters. The parameters for the thermal models of the machines must be changed as the ratings are altered either by size or by speed, or both. Two parameters are used in the thermal models: thermal resistance and thermal mass. The thermal mass can be combined with the thermal resistance to form an alternative parameter: thermal time constant. The thermal

resistances are defined for the paths extending from the rotor and stator hot spots into the air gap, and from the air gap to ambient-temperature heat sink. The resistances will depend somewhat upon the speed of the rotor as it affects heat transfer in the air gap. For the first-order model, we will assume that the thermal resistances are independent of the speed. The parameters are then as follows:

Thermal mass
$$\sim \ell^3$$
Thermal resistance ℓ^{-1}
Thermal time constant ℓ^2 .

For example, for the change of alternator rating from 75 kVA to 100 kVA, and speed from 12,000 r/min to 9000 r/min, in the previous section, the thermal parameters will change as follows:

Linear dimension	l	= 1.155
Speed ratio	N	= 0.75
Thermal mass	$l^3 = (1.155)^3$	= 1.542
Thermal resistance	ℓ -1	= 0.867
Thermal time constant	$l^2 = (1.155)^2$	= 1.335.

For the solid-state controller, as the rating of the dc traction motor current (I_a) varies, the thermal parameters are varied as follows:

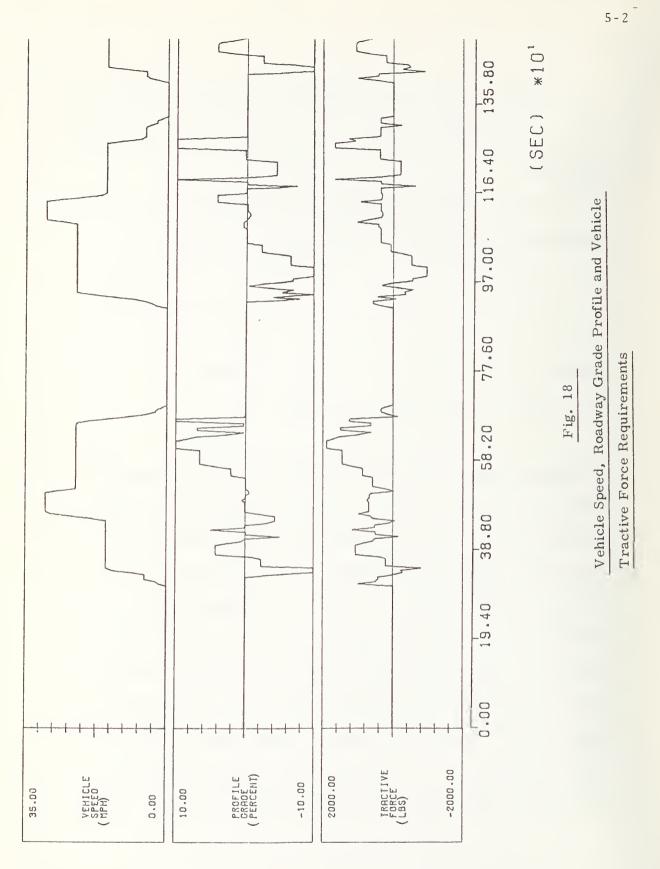
Thermal mass (C₆) $\sim I_{a_b}^{b_{-1}}$ Thermal resistance (R₆ and R₆) $\sim I_{a_b}^{b_{-1}}$ Thermal time constant (τ_6) \sim no change.

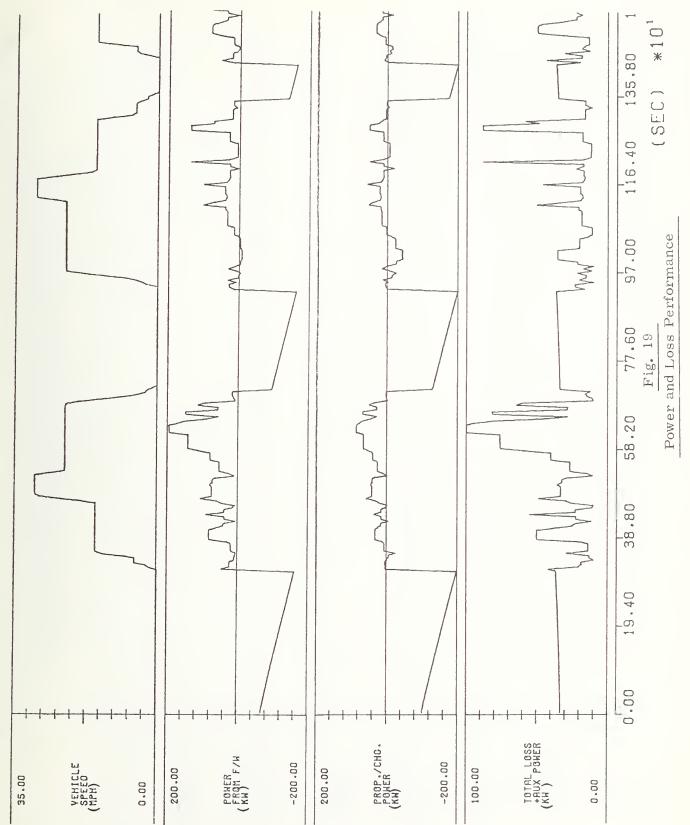
5. RESULTS

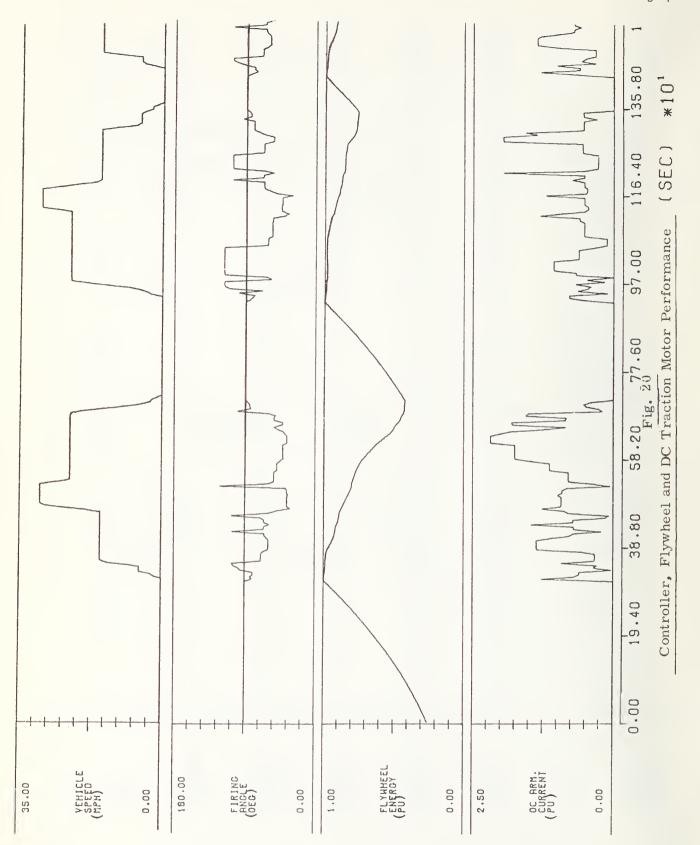
Sample Run

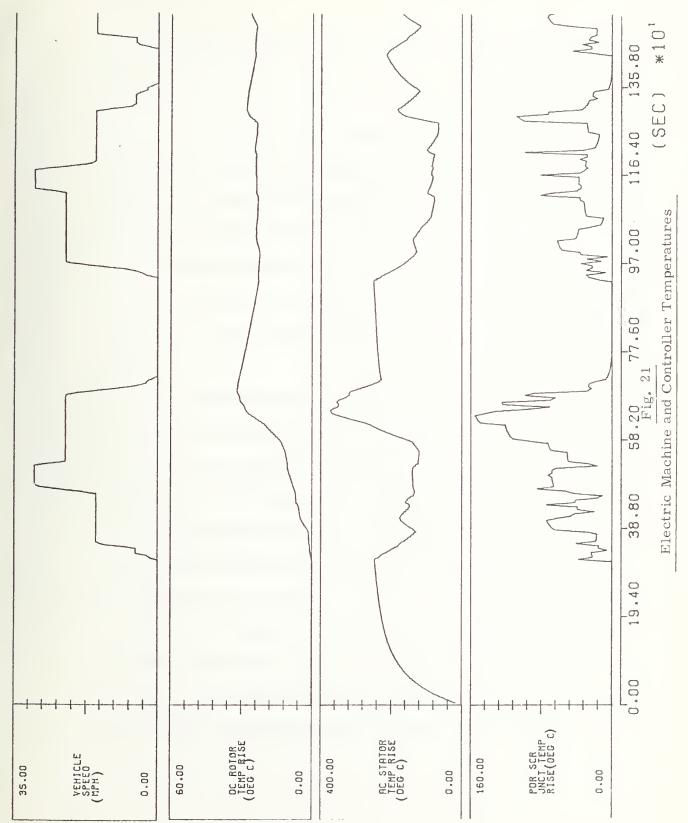
Using the baseline components, the computer program for the electric propulsion system simulation was run in order to check on several items, namely, the models, the ratings selected for the components, and to validate the simulation. The results were obtained as a print-out and as charts; the charts displayed traces of power, electrical variables, and temperatures, with time as the independent variable. These charts are shown in Figs. 18 through 21.

Mission Profile - The route traversed by the existing Morgantown vehicle was used in the simulation to test the baseline flywheel energy-storage vehicle. The required elevation and velocity profiles were shown in Fig. 4; they are repeated in terms of roadway grade and vehicle speed profiles in Fig. 18. The route has an outbound portion, which is basically uphill, to the Engineering Station (B), and a return inbound portion down the hill to the starting point at Walnut Station (A). The dwell-times between the segments of the route are used for charging the flywheel. The vehicle is assumed to make continuous round-trips, stopping at the terminals only to handle passengers and charge the flywheel. The two profiles represent inputs to the program. The









vehicle speed is shown as a reference on all of the charts describing vehicle performance.

Tractive Force - For vehicle weight, wind conditions, and tire inflation, the computer calculates the tractive force required to meet the speed and grade profiles. The tractive force is shown in Fig. 18 for the two segments of the route. Negative tractive force obviously means braking. The base tractive force for the 70-hp dc traction motor is 750 lb. At 620 s on the chart, the peak tractive force is 1900 lb; the motor must deliver 2.5 times its base value.

The peak tractive force would be reduced in an actual vehicle, having an on-board speed-control unit. The unit would be designed to control the firing angle of the solid-state controller to coordinate as closely as possible the actual speed of the vehicle with the command speed. Furthermore, the controller would also limit the maximum current that it could deliver to the armature of the traction motor. This limiter would protect the controller and the dc traction motor, as well as limiting vehicle acceleration for the comfort of the passengers. As a consequence of the control actions, the dc traction motor would apply tractive-force peaks less than those shown in Fig. 18.

Instead, the vehicle would slow down while negotiating the maximum

grades and require less tractive force. With reduced peak tractive forces and currents, the actual propulsion-system losses would be less than the losses calculated in this simulation.

In the second chart of Fig. 19, the trace is the flywheel power.

Negative values represent the charging power when the alternator operates a synchronous motor; positive values represent the flywheel power delivered to the alternator for propulsion. In the third chart, the negative values represent the wayside inverter charging power during the charging periods. During the traveling periods, the positive values represent propulsion power and the negative values represent braking power at the wheels. The charging power reaches 200 kW when the flywheel reaches full speed of 12,000 r/min. The only regeneration of energy to the flywheel in Fig. 19 occurs at about 1000 s, as the vehicle is descending a 10 percent grade. The braking power at the wheels is 43 kW; only 7 kW reaches the flywheel. Of the remaining 36 kW, 6 kW is auxiliary power and the rest is the loss of the elèctric propulsion system.

The power losses are shown in the fourth chart of Fig. 19. During the charging period the trace is the sum of the power loss of the alternator operating as a synchronous motor and the auxiliary power.

During the traveling period, the trace is the total power loss of the electric propulsion system and the auxiliary power. The most severe losses are evident when peak tractive force is required on the outbound segment of the route. For example, at 620 s, the flywheel power is 195 kW; the propulsion power is 85 kW; and the sum of the losses and auxiliary power is 110 kW. At this point in the mission, the propulsion system efficiency is only 45 percent. As a matter of fact, the power losses are so high on the outbound segment that the energy efficiency of the electric propulsion system is only 47.4 percent.

The trace of flywheel energy is shown in Fig. 20. During the first charging period, the flywheel is accelerated from half speed, i.e., 25 percent energy, to full speed, i.e., 100 percent energy. At the end of the uphill outbound segment, the flywheel speed has declined to 7,760 r/min, i.e., 42 percent energy. At the end of the downhill inbound segment, the flywheel speed has declined to 10,400 r/min, i.e., 69 percent energy. Note that the 7 kW of power regeneration at about 1000 s produces the only increase of the flywheel energy, during either the outbound or inbound segments of the mission cycle.

Electrical Operation - In Fig. 20, the firing angle of the solidstate controller and the armature current of the dc traction motor show the state of the electrical system at each interval of travel time. Consider as a reference that, at a firing angle of 90°, the controller applies zero voltage to the dc traction motor. As the angle is shifted toward 0°, the voltage increases and the motor provides tractive force; as the angle shifts toward 180°, the voltage increases negatively and the motor provides regenerative braking force. The regenerative action can be seen during the downhill inbound segment of the mission when the firng angle shifts to 120°. At each interval of travel time, the computer reads out the firng angle which makes the propulsion system meet the speed and tractive-force requirements of the vehicle. As previously noted, in an actual vehicle the control unit would generate the necessary firing angles as the vehicle traversed its route.

The dc armature current trace in Fig. 20 roughly tracks the tractive force shown in Fig. 18. Saturation of the dc traction motor causes the armature current to exceed proportionality to tractive force, while the compounding effect of the series field acts on the armature current in the opposite direction. The peak armature current needed to deliver the peak tractive force is about 2.2 pu at about 620 s. At this current, the armature power loss is about five times its value at rated current. However, since the armature current is less than rated value over most of the route, the average armature power loss is less than the rated value.

Component Temperature - The temperature rise traces of the critical parts of the dc traction motor, the alternator, and the solid-state controller are shown in Fig. 21. The armature of the traction motor reaches a temperature of 32° C near the end of the first uphill outbound segment and 47° C near the end of the second uphill outbound segment. The rated temperature rise of the dc traction motor is 80° C over a 40° C ambient. Since the traction motor armature has a long thermal time constant of 512 s, the temperature does not track the armature current. Furthermore, the dc traction motor tends to cool down during the charging periods, when the vehicle is stationary, with the result that the dc traction motor temperature does not reach the limits set by the manufacturer.

The stator of the alternator has a relatively short thermal time constant of 40 s. The alternator heats up during both the charging and the traveling modes and carries overload currents as well. The chart shows a stator temperature rise of 246°C at the end of the first charging period, 370°C at the end of the first uphill outbound segment, and 355°C at the end of the second uphill outbound segment. The rated temperature rise set by the manufacturer is 160°C over a 40°C ambient. The alternator clearly must be replaced with a larger machine, so as to reduce the power losses and the temperature rise.

Because the junction thermal mass and time constant are negligible, the trace of thyristor junction temperature follows the armature current. The heat sink has a thermal time constant of only 19s. Its temperature rise reaches a peak of 155°C when peak tractive force is required. The rated temperature of the junction set by the manufacturer is either 125°C or 150°C, depending upon the type of thyristor. For a 40°C ambient, the corresponding rated temperature rise is either 85°C or 110°C, compared to the peak value on the chart of 155°C. The results show that the thyristors must be replaced with larger units and/or the thermal time constant of the heat sink increased to insure that the controller will not fail.

System Redesign. The purpose of testing the baseline electric propulsion system was to demonstrate the procedures for using the simulation. The particular type of propulsion system modeled has been proposed by several companies for application to a flywheel energy-storage vehicle. The solid-state controller and dc traction motor are actually on the existing Morgantown vehicle. The 75-kVA alternator and the flywheel correspond to the energy-storage unit originally selected for the San Francisco MUNI flywheel trolley coach. The test run for the simulation of our particular configuration and components shows that the baseline dc traction motor is conservatively loaded,

but the baseline alternator and solid-state controller are overloaded. In actual operation, they will suffer excessive temperature rises and may be expected to break down as a consequence.

If the baseline system were to be built, one or more of the following steps of redesign would be required to insure that the component temperatures did not exceed the manufacturers' limits:

Select an alternator and a controller for larger power ratings in order to reduce their temperature rises to allowable levels.

Reduce the size and hp rating of the dc traction motor.

Set the base speed lower to correspond to a vehicle speed of 23 mi/h, at which peak torque is required.

Use independent field weakening to reach the maximum vehicle speed of 30 mi/h, at which less than peak torque is required.

Supply the on-board auxiliary load from a battery, which can be charged from wayside equipment each time the flywheel is charged. Maintain the charge on the battery from the alternator; only allow it to charge when it is not heavily loaded with propulsion power.

Control the dc traction motor voltage with a combination of alternator field control and controller firing angle control so as to reflect as high a power factor as possible to the alternator. The reduced armature and field currents will reduce the power losses and temperatures in the alternator field and stator windings.

Increase the flywheel energy storage capacity in order to reduce the speed drop of the alternator over a mission. The alternator field current to support the terminal voltage at large armature current and low speed will be reduced. The temperature rise, consequently, will be reduced, as well.

Increase the alternator terminal voltage during the charging period, so that the voltage at the end of the period is greater than 1.2 pu. For the same current, the power will be greater, the charging period shorter, and the stator temperature rise reduced.

The proposed steps of redesign can be tested with the simulation of the electric propulsion system by making appropriate changes in the component models. The charts of component temperatures will show when the redesign has achieved a viable system.

Extension to Other Systems

The procedure in this report for developing a simulation of an electric propulsion system for a flywheel energy-storage vehicle can be applied to other propulsion systems. The simulation can be used to analyze these other propulsion systems when the components are known, or to select components to meet criteria of temperature or power losses. Simulations are particularly suitable for determining the capacity of the energy-storage equipment required for the vehicle to complete its mission.

In order to develop a simulation for a new electric propulsion system, the models must be formulated in the same sequence as described in this report. The dynamic models, which are basically the equations for the electric machines and other components, will provide all of the dependent electrical and mechanical variables of the propulsion system. The power loss models of the components will then provide the power loss components as a function of the electrical and mechanical variables. Finally, the thermal models will generate the component temperatures, as a function of the same variables.

For each electric propulsion system, the parameters for formulating the models of the components must be obtained from a combination of manufacturers' data, handbook data of typical components, and electric-machine design texts. Dimensional analysis can be used to find parameters for specific component ratings from available data.

Conclusions

The Flywheel Propulsion Simulation has been developed for use as an engineering tool for evaluation and design of flywheel-electric-drive propulsion systems for short-range vehicles. This simulation makes it possible to evaluate performance of candidate propulsion systems, operating over given mission profiles, defined in terms of velocity and grade profiles. Wayside recharge and regenerative braking are featured, and power losses and equipment temperature rises are computed on a dynamic basis.

The example shown in the sample run (Chapter V and Appendix D) was not intended to be an optimum design, but an illustration of how the simulation can be used in a specific instance.

The procedure described in this report is a powerful tool in analyzing and designing electric propulsion systems. The use of this procedure will help avert design errors, where components are too large or too small, run too hot or too cold, and require expensive and time-consuming modifications after the vehicles are built and tested.



6. CONCLUSIONS

This report has described a digital computer simulation suitable for modeling the electric-drive system associated with a flywheel energystorage vehicle in which the electrical, mechanical, and thermal operational characteristics of the propulsion system are included. Parameters associated with the route, the vehicle, or the propulsion system components, can be varied and the overall effect of these variations on the performance of the vehicle can be rapidly determined. The particular simulation describes the system more accurately and provides more meaningful data than other previously used simulations, where efficiencies are assigned to each component in the drive train either from estimated average values, or values computed from a multivariable equation. Since the simulation includes thermal models of the electric machines and solid-state controller, component temperatures can be tracked, and also components of different ratings and designs can be evaluated. Furthermore, the simulation method can be applied to electric-drive systems for battery and flywheel energy-storage vehicles, to hybrid vehicles, and to vehicles operating from wayside power.

For the sample run and prototype drive system described in this report, the results indicate that the alternator must be larger (higher rating) to reduce its operating temperatures to acceptable levels. Likewise, the dc traction motor can be smaller, because its operating temperature is less than the allowable level. The rating of the solid-state controller should be increased to reduce its operating temperature.

The results of our preliminary work have shown that the electric-drive system can be optimized for low losses and maximum usage of the flywheel stored energy. The following steps are required. First, the machines should be operated for as little time as possible beyond their ampere ratings. A current limiter should be incorporated into the controller, or larger machines should be used if necessary. Second, the flywheel and alternator of the drive system should not be burdened with supplying the auxiliary power at all times, particularly when the drive system is operating at full capacity. A battery should be used as a supplementary power source for the auxiliary load. Third, a phase-controlled rectifier should not be used to control the speed of the dc traction motor, particularly when the dc motor is required to run at low speed and high torque over a substantial portion of the route. The high current at low power factor drawn from the alternator causes its stator

and field losses to be excessive. To reduce system losses, the dc motor speed should be controlled by the alternator field current; the controller should be operated either full-on, firing angle $\alpha = 0^{\circ}$, or full regeneration, $\alpha \approx 180^{\circ}$.

The electric-drive system described in this report is frequently used for studies of flywheel energy-storage vehicles. For this reason, it was selected as a basis for developing the modeling procedure. Other configurations, which are less lossy over a given route, can be studied by the same techniques. Electric-drive systems which are patterned after stationary industrial drives, or after vehicle drives using contact-rail power, will not necessarily be optimum for flywheel energy-storage vehicles. The regenerative braking feature of the system described in this report would probably be more attractive if a true urban route (over five stops per mile) were used to test the drive system, since braking would be done more frequently.

In summary, this electric-drive system simulation can be used to determine suitability of a given system configuration for an intended mission. Also, changes in the ratings of components and different configurations of components can be analyzed in order to optimize the drive system.



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Part I DYNAMIC AND POWER LOSS MODELS

The dynamic and power loss mathematical models are the sets of equations that describe the flywheel energy-storage vehicle's drive system in both its traveling and wayside charging modes of operation.

For convenience, the equations are divided into sections corresponding to the components or functions which they describe. A pictorial diagram of the major system components is shown in Fig. 3. The input constants for the baseline drive system are given in Appendix B. The parameters for the equations are listed in Appendix C. The prime objective of the calculations using the dynamic models is to determine the flywheel power at each instant of time as the vehicle travels on its route. Hence, the calculations start from the tractive force and power required by the vehicle drive wheels, and are carried back through the dynamic models of the propulsion-system components to the flywheel.

The equations are presented in this same order of calculation.

A. Propulsion Requirements

The input variables from the mission profile are:

Vehicle velocity	V(t)	ft/s
Roadway grade	G(t)	rad
Wind velocity	V (t)	mi/h

The tractive force components are:

$$F_i = \frac{W}{g} \left(\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta t}\right) MF$$

Eq.

$$F_g = WG$$

$$F_{+} = \mu W (1 + C_{C}V)$$

Aerodynamic drag force

$$F_{w} = \frac{1}{2} \rho (V + V_{w})^{2} SGN (V + V_{w}) C_{d}A$$

The total tractive force and traction power at the drive-wheels are:

$$F = F_i + F_g + F_t + F_w$$

$$P_2 = 1.36 \times 10^{-3} \text{ F} \cdot \text{V}$$

If F and P_2 are negative, the dc traction motor must shift into the regenerative braking mode.

B. Gearbox (Transmission)

The vehicle speed and tractive force, when the dc traction motor is operating at its base speed of 2730 r/min and 70.17 hp, are given by:

Vehicle speed
$$V_b = \frac{2\pi N_b R}{60 \gamma} = 47.18$$
 Eq. 1

Tractive force
$$F_b = \frac{5252 \text{ (hp}_b)}{N_b} = \frac{\gamma \eta_{gb}}{R} = 751 \text{ lb}$$
. 2

The gearbox losses for an assumed efficiency η_{gb} are:

Motoring
$$P_4 = \left(\frac{1}{\eta_{gb}} - 1\right) P_2$$
 kW 3

Braking
$$P_4 = \left(1 - \eta_{gb}\right) \left| P_2 \right|$$
 kW. 4

C. DC Traction Motor

The normalized vehicle speed and tractive force are,

Vehicle speed, normalized
$$V_o = \frac{V}{\sigma V_b}$$
 pu 1

(motoring)
$$F_o = \frac{F}{F_b}$$
 pu

(braking)
$$F_o = \frac{F}{F_b} \frac{2}{gb}$$
 pu.

The equations for the armature current needed to develop the required tractive force must take into account the series field, saturation, and field weakening control above the base speed of the dc traction motor.

Ampere turns, ratio of series-to-total, at dc traction motor base conditions for λ series-to-shunt field turns and σ field weakening.

$$C_{1} = \frac{\lambda \sigma I_{ab}}{I_{fdc_{b}} + \lambda \sigma I_{ab}} \qquad pu. \qquad 3$$

Armature current parameter

$$SQ = \frac{1}{2} \left[-\left(\frac{1-C_1}{C_1}\right) + B_{de} | F_0 | \right] \quad pu.$$

Armature current normalized

$$I_{o} = SQ + \sqrt{SQ^{2} + \frac{F_{o}}{C_{l}}} \left[A_{dc} + B_{dc} (1 - C_{l}) \right]$$
pu. 5

When the dc traction motor runs over its base speed $\sigma \, V_b$ and $\sigma < 1$, the shunt field is assumed to be weakened. The normalized armature and shunt field currents are:

Armature current, normalized

$$I_{o} = \frac{E_{bb}}{V_{dc}} \frac{V_{o}}{\sigma} F_{o}$$
 pu 6

$$I_{f_{\mathbf{r}}} = \frac{1}{1 - C_{l}} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{A_{dc}}{E_{bb} & V_{o}} - C_{l}I_{o} \\ \frac{E_{bb} & V_{o}}{V_{dc_{b}}} - B_{dc} \end{bmatrix}$$

The normalized ampere turns for shunt and series fields are given by:

Full field
$$I_{fdc} = (1 - C_1) + C_1 I_0 \qquad pu \qquad 7$$
Field weakened
$$I_{fdc} = (1 - C_1) I_{fr} + C_1 I_0 \qquad pu .$$

The shunt and series fields of the dc traction motor are reversed when the motor transfers from the motoring to the braking mode. The voltage equations are the following:

Discriminant SGN F = +1 FOR F
$$\geqslant$$
 0 (motoring) SGN F = -1 FOR F $<$ 0 (braking).

Flux-conductor product

$$\Phi_{dc} = \frac{\text{SGN F}}{\sigma} \left[\frac{\begin{vmatrix} I_{f_{dc}} \end{vmatrix}}{A_{dc} + B_{dc} \begin{vmatrix} I_{f_{dc}} \end{vmatrix}} \right] \text{ pu } . \qquad 9$$

Back emf base
$$E_{bb} = V_{dc_b} (1 - \Psi) - 2.0$$
 V, 10

Back emf normalized

$$E_4 = \left(\frac{E_{bb}}{V_{dc_b}}\right) V_0 \quad \Phi_{dc} \qquad pu \quad 11$$

Terminal voltage normalized

$$E_{o} = \frac{V_{dc}}{V_{dc_{b}}} = E_{4} + \Psi I_{o} + \frac{2}{V_{dc_{b}}} pu. \qquad 12$$

When the base speed at which field weakening is used is reduced to $\sigma \; V_{\rm b} \;$ and a smaller traction motor is used, the motor parameters change to:

Armature resistance

$$R_{adc}^{l} = \frac{R_{adc}}{\sigma}$$
13

Armature current, base

$$I_{a_{b}}^{l} = \sigma I_{a_{b}}$$

The five loss components and the efficiency for the dc traction motor are given in the following equations:

Armature copper loss, 120°C

1

$$D_1 = 1.39 \times 10^{-3} (I_{a_b}^1 I_o)^2 R_{a_{dc}}^1 \text{ kW}.$$
 15

Shunt field loss
$$D_2 = 10^{-3} I_{\text{dc}} V_{\text{dc}}$$
 kW. 16

Friction, windage and core loss

$$D_3 = D_{3b} V_0^{2.5}$$
 kW. 17

Stray load loss
$$D_4 = \frac{0.01}{\eta_{gb}} \cdot P_2$$
 (motoring) kW 18

$$D_4 = 0.01 \cdot \eta_{gb} \cdot P_2$$
 (braking) kW.

Brush loss
$$D_5 = 10^{-3} \cdot 2 (I_{a_b}^1 I_o)$$
 kW. 19

Total loss
$$P_5 = D_1 + D_2 + D_3 + D_4 + D_5$$
 kW. 20

DC traction motor efficiency

$$\eta_{dc} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P_5 \eta_{gb}}{P_2}} \quad \text{(motoring)} \quad \text{pu} \quad 21$$

$$\eta_{1} = \frac{1}{P_2} \quad \text{(braking)}$$

$$\eta_{dc} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P_5}{\eta_{gb} |P_2|}}$$
 (braking)

D. Solid-State Controller

The controller losses and efficiency are:

Snubber loss
$$R_1 = 10^{-5} \left(V_{dc_b} \mid E_d \right) \begin{pmatrix} I_{a_b} & I_{o} \end{pmatrix}$$
 kW .

Thyristor loss
$$R_2 = \sigma R_2 I_0$$
 kW. 2

Total controller loss

$$P_6 = R_1 + R_2$$
 kW. 3

Controller efficiency

$$\eta_{\text{pdr}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P_6}{100 \text{ R}_1}} \qquad \text{(motoring)} \quad \text{pu} \qquad 4$$

$$\eta_{\text{pdr}} = 1 - \frac{P_6}{100 \text{ R}_1} \qquad \text{(braking)} \quad \text{pu} \qquad .$$

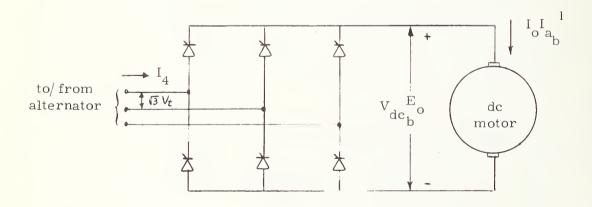


Fig. A-1 Circuit Diagram for Solid-State Controller

Alternator

The alternator power, reactive power, and kVA are given in the following sequence of equations:

Power to controller

$$P_{pdr} = P_2 + P_4 + P_5 + P_6 - D_2$$
 kW.

Alternator power output

$$POW = P_{pdr} + P_{1}$$
 kW. 2

Reactive power to controller. (fundamental component)

$$Q_{pdr} = \sqrt{\left[\frac{3}{10^3} \left(\frac{\sqrt{6}}{\pi}\right) \quad V_t \quad I_{a_b}^1 \quad I_o\right]^2 - P_{pdr}}$$

$$rkVa. \quad 3$$

Auxiliary load reactive power

$$Q_1 = P_1 \tan \theta_1$$
 rkVa, 4

Alternator reactive (fundamental component) power output

$$Q = Q_{pdr} + Q_{1}$$
 rkVa , 5

Alternator kVA output, (fundamental component)

$$S_1 = \sqrt{POW^2 + Q^2}$$

Alternator power factor

$$\cos \theta = \frac{POW}{S_1}$$
 pu . 7

Alternator (harmonic components) reactive power output

$$Q_h = 3 \times 10^{-3} (0.242) V_t I_{a_b}^1 I_o rkVa. 8$$

Alternator total kVA output,

$$S = \sqrt{S_1^2 + Q_h^2} \qquad kVA. \qquad 9$$

The alternator base and normalized voltage and current in terms of the rewind factor RWF are given in the following equations:

Alternator base voltage (l -n)

$$V_{t_b} = V_{t_b} (RWF) \qquad V . \qquad 10$$

Alternator base armature current

$$I_{4_b} = \frac{10^3 S_b}{3 V_{t_b}}$$
 A. 11

Alternator normalized armature current

$$I_4 = \frac{10^3 \text{S}}{3 V_t I_4}$$
 pu . 12

Alternator normalized fundamental current

$$I_{4_{f}} = \left(\frac{S_{1}}{S}\right)I_{4}$$
 pu 13

The following equations describe the phasor diagram model, such as shown in Fig. $\,$. The equations are used to calculate the excitation voltage E_5 , taking into account saturation.

Alternator power angle
$$\tan \delta = \frac{I_{4_{f}} \left[X_{q} \omega_{o} \cos \theta - R_{a_{ac}} \sin \theta \right]}{\frac{V_{t}}{V_{t}} + I_{4_{f}} \left[X_{q} \omega_{o} \sin \theta + R_{a_{ac}} \cos \theta \right]}$$
pu 14

Alternator air-gap voltage

$$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{r}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\mathbf{V}_{t}}{\mathbf{V}_{t}} + \mathbf{I}_{4} \left[\mathbf{X}_{a}^{\omega} \cos \theta + \mathbf{R}_{a} \cos \theta\right]\right)^{2} + \left(\mathbf{I}_{4} \left[\mathbf{X}_{a}^{\omega} \cos \theta - \mathbf{R}_{a} \sin \theta\right]\right)^{2}}$$
pu . 15

Field current for E

$$I_{fac} = \frac{A_{ac} E_{r}}{\omega_{o} - B_{ac} E_{r}}$$
 pu . 16

Slope of air-gap line at ω

$$K_{ag} = \omega_{o} K_{ag}$$
 pu . 17

Slope of Kingsley air-gap line (cannot exceed K ag.

slope B =
$$\frac{E_r}{I_f}$$
 pu . 18

Ratio of slopes
$$K_{\text{fact}} = \frac{K_{\text{ag}_{r}}}{\text{slope B}}$$
 pu 19

Kingsley saturated synchronous reactance

$$X_{d} = X_a + \frac{X_d - X_a}{K_{fact}}$$
 pu 20

Excitation voltage

$$E_{5} = \frac{V_{t}}{V_{t}} \cos \delta + I_{4} \left[R_{a_{ac}} \cos (\delta + \theta) + X_{d_{sat}} \omega_{o} \sin (\delta + \theta) \right]$$

$$pu = 21$$

Alternator field current

$$I_5 = \frac{E_5}{\text{slope B}}$$
 pu 22
$$I_5 = I_5 \text{ (pu)} \cdot I_5$$
 A

The firing angle of the controller thyristors needed to provide the required dc traction motor armature voltage is given in the following equations:

Commutation voltage drop

23

$$E_{x} = \frac{3}{\pi} I_{a_{b}}^{1} I_{o} X_{d} Z_{b} \omega_{o} \qquad V .$$

Controller firing angle

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{V_{dc_b} \frac{E_0 + E_1 + 3.0}{2.34 V_1}}{2.34 V_1} \qquad \text{pu} \qquad 24$$

The loss components and efficiency of the alternator are given in the following equations:

Armature copper loss

$$A_1 = A_{1_h} I_4^2$$
 kW 25

Exciter and field loss

$$A_2 = A_{2b_0} + A_{2b_1} I_5^2$$
 kW 26

Core loss
$$A_{3} = A_{3} \left(\frac{E_{r}}{E_{r}}\right)$$
kW . 27

Friction and windage loss

$$A_4 = A_4 \cdot \omega_0^3$$
 kW . 28

Stray load loss

$$A_5 = A_{5_{b_0}} + A_{5_{b_1}} \left(\frac{I_4}{RWF}\right)^2$$
 kW . 29

Total alternator loss

$$P_7 = A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + A_4 + A_5$$
 kW . 30

Alternator efficiency

$$\eta_{\text{ac}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P_7}{POW}}$$
 (traveling) pu . 31

$$\eta_{ac} = I - \frac{P_7}{|POW|}$$
 (charging) pu

F. Flywheel

In the traveling mode, the flywheel supplies the net power for propulsion, losses, and auxiliary load. The equations for calculating the flywheel acceleration and angular speed are as follows:

Total drive system loss

Eq.

$$P_3 = P_4 + P_5 + P_6 + P_7$$
 kW.

Total flywheel power

$$P = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 - P_{in}$$
 kW. 2

Flywheel integration constant

$$K_{1} = \frac{550}{0.746 \; I_{b} \; \omega_{f}^{2}} = 1.5562 \, x \, 10^{-5} \, kW^{-1} \, s^{-1} \quad 3$$

$$\text{for } \begin{cases} I_{b} = 30 \; \text{lb-ft-s}^{2} \\ \omega_{f} = 400 \pi \; \text{rad/s} \end{cases}$$
Flywheel inertia coefficient

$$K_2 = \frac{I_b}{I}$$
 pu.

Flywheel maximum speed coefficient

$$K_3 = \left(\frac{f_{\text{max}}}{\omega_{\text{fmax}}}\right)^2 \qquad \text{pu} \quad .$$

Flywheel acceleration

$$\dot{\omega}_{f} = -K_{1} K_{2} K_{3} \omega_{f_{max}} \left(\frac{P}{\omega_{o}}\right) \qquad rad/s^{2} . \qquad 6$$

Flywheel angular speed

$$\omega_{o} = \omega_{o_{i}} + \sum \left(\frac{\omega_{f}}{\omega_{f}}\right)^{\Delta_{f}} = \left(\frac{\omega_{f}}{\omega_{f}}\right) pu$$
, 7

Part II THERMAL MODELS

The thermal models are the equations that provide the component temperature rises in terms of the component losses calculated from the power loss models of Part I.

G. DC Traction Motor

Loss power to rotor

Eq.

$$P_{\text{dc}} = R_{d_1} D_1 + R_{d_2} D_2 + R_{d_3} D_3 + R_{d_4} D_4 + R_{d_5} D_5$$
 kW .

Loss power to stator

$$P_{s_{dc}} = S_{d_1} D_1 + S_{d_2} D_2 + S_{d_3} D_3 + S_{d_4} D_4 + S_{d_5} D_5$$

kW. 2

Constraint

$$R_{d_i} + S_{d_i} = 1.0 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., 5$$

Rate of rotor temperature rise

$$T_{rdc} = \frac{T_{gdc} - T_{rdc} + P_{rdc} R_{rdc}}{\tau_{dc}}$$
 °C/s. 4

Rate of stator temperature rise

$$T_{sdc} = \frac{T_{gdc} - T_{sdc} + P_{sdc} R_{sdc}}{\tau_{sdc}}$$

$$C/s. 5$$

Air-gap temperature rise

$$T_{g_{dc}} = \frac{R_{g_{dc}} R_{s_{dc}} T_{c_{dc}} R_{c_{dc}} R_{c_$$

Loss power to air gap

$$P_{dc_{out}} = \frac{T_{g_{dc}}}{R_{g_{dc}}}$$
 kW , 7

Rotor time constant

$$\tau = R C$$
 s. 8

Stator time constant

$$\tau = R C$$

$$s \cdot dc$$

$$dc$$

$$dc$$

H. Alternator

Loss power to rotor

Eq.

$$P_{rac} = R_{a_1} A_1 + R_{a_2} A_2 + R_{a_3} A_3 + R_{a_4} A_4 + R_{a_5} A_5$$

kW . 1

Loss power to stator

$$P_{s_{ac}} = S_{a_1} A_1 + S_{a_2} A_2 + S_{a_3} A_3 + S_{a_4} A_4 + S_{a_5} A_5$$

kW . 2

Constraint

$$R_{a_{i}} + S_{a_{i}} = 1.0 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ...5$$

Rate of rotor temperature rise

$$T_{rac} = \frac{T_{gac} - T_{rac} + P_{rac} R_{rac}}{\tau_{ac}}$$
 °C/s. 4

Rate of stator temperature

$$T_{sac} = \frac{T_{gac} - T_{sac} + P_{sac} R_{sac}}{T_{sac}}$$

$$C/s = 5$$

Air-gap temperature rise

$$T_{g_{ac}} = \frac{R_{g_{ac}} R_{s_{ac}} T_{r_{ac}} + R_{g_{ac}} R_{r_{ac}} T_{s_{ac}}}{R_{r_{ac}} R_{s_{ac}} + R_{r_{ac}} R_{g_{ac}} + R_{s_{ac}} R_{g_{ac}}} \circ C . \qquad 6$$

Loss power to air gap

$$P_{ac_{out}} = \frac{T_{g_{ac}}}{R_{g_{ac}}}$$
 kW . 7

Rotor time constant

$$\tau_{\text{ac}} = R_{\text{rac}} C_{\text{rac}}$$
 s. 8

Stator time constant

$$\tau = R C s. 9$$

Eq.

I. Solid-State Controller

Rate of heat sink temperature rise

 $T_6 = \frac{\Gamma_6 R_6 - \Gamma_6}{\tau_6}$ °C/s. 1

Loss power to ambient air

$$P_{6} = \frac{T_{6}}{R_{6}}$$
 kW 2

Heat sink time constant

$$\tau_6 = R_6 C_6 \qquad s \quad , \quad 3$$

Thyristor junction temperature rise

$$T_{6_t} = T_6 + P_6 R_{6_t}$$
 °C. 4

Eq.

The auxiliary power (P_1) is set to zero. The tractive power (P_2) and wind force (V_w) are also zero. The vehicle transmission losses (P_4) , dc traction motor losses (P_5) , and controller losses (P_6) are all zero. The equations representing the inputs to the alternator (operating as a synchronous motor) as it accelerates the flywheel from initial speed to full speed are:

Terminal voltage

$$V_t = V_t \cdot \omega_o$$
 $V \cdot 1$

Power input

$$P_{in_{w}} = K_{p_{in}} \cdot P_{in_{max}} \cdot \omega_{o}$$
 kW. 2

kVA input

$$S = \frac{P_{\text{in}}}{|\cos \theta|} \text{ kVA.} \quad 3$$

Armature current

$$I_4 = \frac{10^3 \text{S}}{3 \text{ V}_t I_{4_b}}$$
 pu . 4

The other alternator parameters and the alternator losses in the charging mode are computed by using the same equations as those used in the traveling mode, with two exceptions:

$$I_{4_{f}} = I_{4}$$
 (No harmonics in wayside power)

$$\eta_{ac} = \frac{\left(P_{in_{w}} - P_{7}\right)}{P_{in_{w}}}$$
(Alternator efficiency during charging)

where P₇ is the total alternator (motor) loss in the charging mode.

Flywheel acceleration and angular velocity are found from,

Acceleration Eq.
$$\omega_{f} = -K_{1} K_{2} K_{3} \left(\frac{P_{7} - P_{in}}{\omega_{0}}\right), \omega_{fmax} \quad rad/s^{2}. \quad 5$$

Angular velocity,

$$\omega_0 = \omega_{0i} + \sum_{\Delta t = 1}^{n} \left(\frac{\omega_{f}}{\omega_{f_{max}}} \right) \cdot \Delta t$$
 rad/s. 6



Part I CONSTANTS FOR A COMPUTER SIMULATION RUN

Symbol S	Symbol		Nom.	
(Program) (Ed	quations)	Definition	Value	Units
WT, VMASS	W .	Weight of vehicle with load	12,238	lb
VAREA	А	Projected area of vehicle	53.	ft ²
A A	μ	Rolling coefficient of friction	0.0230	
ВВ	C _c	Coulomb coefficient of friction	0.000175	h/ mi
СС	C _d	Aerodynamic drag coefficient	0.610	
WIND	V_{W}	Wind velocity	30.	mi/ h
I	Ι	Flywheel moment of inertia	45.	slug-ft
ALIM	V _{max}	Acceleration limit (abs.)	1.0	mi/h/s
F B	F _b	Base value, tractive force	751	lb
VB ·	V _b	Base value, vehicle velocity	47.18	ft/s
IAB	I a _b	Base value, dc motor armature current	140.	А
Wφ	ω O	Speed of energy storage unit (initial)	0.5	pu
NGB	$\eta_{ m gb}$	Efficiency of gearbox	0.92	
VDCB	v_{dc_b}	Base value of dc motor terminal voltage	420.	V
VTRUN	V	Const. terminal voltage (1-n) of alttravel	ling 215.	V
Kl	V _t run	Integration constant	1.55626	kW ⁻¹ s ⁻¹
RGDC	R gdc	DC motor thermal res., gap to ambient	2.97	°C/kW
RADC	R a dc	DC motor arm, circuit res. at 20°C	0.150	ohms
D3B	D ₃ b	DC motor, friction, windage, & core losses	S	
	D	at base conditions	1.556	kW

Symbol S	ymbol		Nom.	
(Program) (Ec	quations)	Definition	Value	Units
AAC	A ac	AC machine, saturation curve, Frolich		
		coefficient	0.3584	pu
BAC	Bac	AC machine, saturation curve, Frolich		
		coefficient	0.6417	pu
ADC	A _{dc}	DC motor, saturation curve, Frolich		
		coefficient	0.50	pu
BDC	B _{dc}	DC motor, saturation curve, Frolich		
		coefficient	0.50	pu
PSI	Ψ	IR drop/ dc motor base term. voltage	0.05	pu
R2B	R ₂ _b	SCR loss coefficient, controller	0.412	kW
AlB	A ₁ _b	AC machine, armature Cu loss at base cond	3.938	kW
${ m A2B}\phi$	A ₂ b _o	AC machine, exciter and field Cu loss, cons	t. 0. 28	kW
A2B1	A ₂ _{b₁}	AC machine, and field Cu loss, coefficient	0.2394	kW
АЗВ	A ₃ _b	AC machine, core loss, coefficient	1.601	kW
A4B	A ₄ _b	AC machine, friction & windage loss at		
	D	maximum speed	2.045	kW
$A5B\phi$	A ₅ _b o	AC machine, stray load loss, constant	0.207	kW
A5B1	A ₅ b ₁	AC machine, stray load loss, coefficient	1.671	kW
Pl	P _l	Real power to auxiliary load	6.0	kW
Т81	θ_1	Power factor angle, auxiliary load	0.64350	rad.

Symbol	Symbol		Nom.	
(Program)	(Equations)	Definition	Value	Units
XQ	Xq	AC machine, q-axis synchronous reactance	1.24	pu
RAAC	R a "ac Xd	AC machine, armature resistance	0.0495	pu
Х2φ	Xd	AC machine, armature reactance	0.145	pu
XD	x_{d}	AC machine, d-axis unsaturated synchrono	ous	
		reactance	3.40	pu
WFMAX	$^{\omega}_{\mathrm{f}}$ max	Maximum speed, flywheel & alternator	12,000.	r/ min
LAMBDA	λ	Series/shunt field turns	0.04034	
RRDC	R rdc	DC motor, thermal resistance, rotor-to-g	ap 8.17	°C/kW
RSDC	R s dc	DC motor, thermal resistance, stator -		
	uc	to-gap	21.6	°C/kW
RCRDC	$^{ au}$ rdc	DC motor, rotor thermal time constant	512.	S
RCSDC	τ s dc	DC motor, stator thermal time constant	1127.	S
RDI	R _d 1	Thermal weighting coefficient, -D ₁ ,loss		
	1	to dc motor rotor	0.95	
RD2	R_{d_2}	Thermal weighting coefficient, -D ₂ loss		
	2	to de motor rotor	0.	
RD3	$^{\mathrm{R}}_{\mathrm{d}_{3}}$	Thermal weighting coefficient, D_3 , loss		
	3	to de motor rotor	0.6	
RD4	$^{\mathrm{R}}$ d $_{4}$	Thermal weighting coefficient, \mathbf{D}_4 , loss		
	4	to dc motor rotor	0.8	

Symbol	Symbol		Nom.	
(Program)	(Equations)	Definition	Value	Units
RD5	$^{\mathrm{R}}$ d $_{5}$	Thermal weighting coefficient, D ₅ , loss	1 0	
SD1	\mathbf{s}_{d_1}	to dc motor rotor Thermal weighting coefficient, D ₁ , loss	1.0	
		to dc motor stator	0.05	
SD2	s _d 2	Thermal weighting coefficient - D ₂ , loss		
	LJ	to dc motor stator	1.0	
SD3	$^{\mathrm{S}}_{\mathrm{d}_3}$	Thermal weighting coefficient, D_3 loss		
	3	to dc motor stator	0.4	
SD4	\mathbf{s}_{d_4}	Thermal weighting coefficient, D ₄ , loss		
	**	to dc motor stator	0.2	
SD5	S _d ₅	Thermal weighting coefficient, D_5 loss		
	5	to dc motor stator	0.	
R6	R ₆	Thermal resistance of controller heat		
		sink to ambient	19.6	°C/kW
TAU6	^τ 6	Controller heat sink, thermal time const.	18.4	S
SIGMA	σ	Field weakening factor new/old motor		
		base speed	1.0	
1 FDC B	Ifdeb	Base value, shunt field current	12.0	А
ТВ	T _b	Base output torque, dc motor	135.0	lb⁻ ft

Symbol	Symbol		Nom.	
(Program) (Equations)	Definition	Value	Units
NB	N b	Base speed, dc motor	2730	r/min
HPB	HP _b	Base horsepower, dc motor	70.17	hp
VFDC	V f dc	Shunt field voltage, dc motor	24.0	V
RWF	RWF	Rewind factor, ac machine, new/old		
		termvolt	3.0	
ER_{ϕ}	$\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{r}_{o}}$	Air gap voltage at base condition	1.05	pu
RRAC	o R r ac	AC machine thermal resistance, rotor-		
	ac	to-gap	18.8	°C/kW
RSAC	R s ac	AC machine, thermal resistance, stator-		
	ac	to-gap	7.42	°C/kW
RGAC	R g _{ac}	AC machine, thermal resistance, gap-to-a	mb.3.03	°C/kW
RCRAC	r ac	AC machine, rotor thermal time constant	64.9	S
RCSAC	ac T S ac	AC machine, stator thermal time constant	39.5	S
SB	ac S b	Base kVA output of alternator	75.8	kVA
$VTB_{m{\phi}}$	$v_{t_{b_o}}$	AC machine, base term. voltage (1-n)		
	бо	before rewind	115.0	V
KAG	K ag	Slope of air gap line	1.519	pu
XA	X	AC machine, armature leakage reactance	0.085	pu

Symbol	Symbol		Nom.	
(<u>Program</u>)	(Equations)	<u>Definition</u>	Value	Units
I5B	I ₅ _b	AC machine, field current, base condition	14.26	А
RAI	R a l	Thermal weighting coefficient-A _l loss to		
	1	ac machine rotor	0.	
RA2	R a ₂	Thermal weighting coefficient-A ₂ loss to		
	۷	ac machine rotor	1.0	
RA3	R a ₃	Thermal weighting coefficient-A ₃ loss to		
	J	ac machine rotor	0.2	
RA4	R _{a4}	Thermal weighting coefficient-A ₄ loss to		
	•	ac machine rotor	0.7	
RA5	R _{a5}	Thermal weighting coefficient, A_5 loss to		
		ac machine rotor	0.2	
SAl	Sal	Thermal weighting coefficient, A loss to		
	•	ac machine stator	1.0	
SA2	s a ₂	Thermal weighting coefficient, A ₂ loss to		
		ac machine stator	0.	
SA3	S _a 3	Thermal weighting coefficient, A_3 loss to		
		ac machine stator	0.8	
SA4	$^{\mathrm{S}}$ a $_{4}$	Thermal weighting coefficient, A_4 loss to		
		ac stator	0.3	

(concluded)

Symbol	Symbol		Nom.	
(Program)	(Equations)	Definition	Value	Units
SA5	S a ₅	Thermal weighting coefficient, A_5 loss		
	5	to ac machine stator	0.8	
KPIN	$^{\rm K}_{ m p}_{ m in}$	Input power gain factor, - charging mode	1.0	
R6T	R ₆ t	Thermal resistance, controller SCR to		
	t	heat sink	58.8	°C/kW
VTCMAX	$v_{t_{c_{max}}}$	AC machine, terminal voltage (max),		
	c max	charging mode	414.0	V
PIN MAX	P in	Maximum input power, ac machine,		
	max	charging mode	200.0	kW
MF	MF	Mass factor due to rotary inertia	1.08	
ZB	$Z_{\mathbf{b}}$	Base impedance of alternator	4.70	Ω

Part II OTHER CONSTANTS

Symbol	Symbol		Nom.	
(Program)	(Equations)	Definition	Value	Units
EBB	$^{ m E}$ bb	DC motor, back emf at base conditi	ion 397.	V
	g	Gravitation constant	32.17	ft/s^2
	I _b	Nominal flywheel moment of inertia	30.	slug-ft ²
	R	Drive wheel radius	1.1833	ft
	γ	Gear ratio (motor speed/ wheel spee	ed) 7.17	
	ρ	Air density (sea level)	2.378 x 10 ⁻³	slugs/ft ³
	$\omega_{\mathbf{f}}$	Nominal flywheel maximum speed	400 π	rad/s
	max _b	Initial value of flywheel speed	0.5	pu
MTRIP	I	Number of round trips for a run	1,5	-

PARAMETERS FOR COMPUTER PROGRAM

Symbol	Symbol		
(Program)	(Equations)	Definition	Units
Al	A_1	AC machine, armature cu loss, 200°C	kW
A2	$^{\mathrm{A}}_{\mathrm{2}}$	AC machine, exciter and field cu loss	kW
А3	A ₃	AC machine, core loss	kW
A4	A_{4}	AC machine, friction and windage loss	kW
A5	A 5	AC machine, stray load loss	kW
Cl	C	(Series/total) amp-turns at dc motor base	
DI	D	Armature circuit cu loss at 120°C	kW
D2	D ₂	DC motor, shunt field cu loss	kW
D3	D_3	DC motor, friction, windage, and core losses	kW
D4	D_4	DC motor, stray load loss	kW
D5	D ₅	DC motor, brush commutation loss	kW
E4	E ₄	DC motor, back-emf	pu
E ₅	E ₀	DC motor, terminal voltage	pu
ER	Er	AC machine, air gap voltage	pu
E5	E ₅	AC machine, excitation voltage	pu
EX	Ex	Controller, commutation voltage drop	V
	Fi	Vehicle, inertia force	lb
	F	Vehicle, gravity (grade) force	lb
R FORC	CE F	Vehicle, tire friction force	lb
	Fw	Vehicle, aerodynamic force (incl. wind)	lb
FT	F	Vehicle, required tractive force	lb
$F\phi$	F_0	Tractive force/dc motor base tract. force	pu
GRAD		Grade of roadway (profile)	rad
IAB	I l	DC motor, base armature current (with field w	eak.) A
Ιφ	I ₀ b	DC motor, armature current	pu

Symbol	Symbol		
(Program)	(Equations)	Definition	Units
IFR	I _f r	DC motor, shunt field current with field weak	pu
IFDC	I fdc	DC motor, total field current	pu
IFACR	I f ac I ₄	AC machine, field current for air gap voltage (E_r)	pu
I4B	I ₄ _b	AC machine, armature current after rewind	А
I4	I_4	AC machine, armature current (per phase)	pu
I4F	$^{\mathrm{I}}_{^{4}\mathrm{f}}$	Fundamental component of I ₄	pu
I5	I ₅	AC machine, required field current	pu
KA G R	$^{\mathrm{K}}_{\mathtt{ag}}{}_{\mathtt{r}}$	Slope of air gap line, reduced speed	pu
K2	К ₂	Flywheel, moment of inertia coefficient	pu
К3	К ₃	Flywheel, maximum speed coefficient	pu
KFACT	K fact	Ratio of slopes of air-gap lines, Kingsley Method	pu
PINW	P _{in} w	Charging power, ac motor	kW
PRDC	P rdc	Loss power, dc motor rotor	kW
PSDC	P s dc	Loss power, dc motor stator	kW
PRAC	P r ac	Loss power, ac machine rotor	kW
PSAC	P s ac	Loss power, ac machine stator	kW
PDC QU	Γ P dc out	DC motor, rate of cooling by forced air	kW
PAC OUT	ΓΡ ac out	AC machine, rate of cooling by forced oil	kW
P	P	Total power from flywheel	kW

Symbol	Symbol		
(Program)	Equations)	Definition	Units
P2	P ₂	Propulsion power at wheels	kW
P3	P ₃	Total losses of propulsion system	kW
P4	P_4	Transmission losses	kW
P5	P ₅	Total dc motor loss	kW
Р6	P ₆	Total controller loss	kW
P7	P ₇	Total ac machine loss	kW
PPDR	P _{pdr}	Power, alternator to controller	kW
POW	POW	Total alternator power	kW
QPDR	Q _{pdr}	Fundamental alternator reactive power	kvar
Q	Q	Total alternator fundamental reactive power	kvar
Q1	Q_1	Reactive power, auxiliary load	kvar
QH	Q_{h}	Reactive power, alternator - higher freq. comp.	kvar
RADC	R a dc	DC motor, armature circuit res. at 20° C w/ field we	eak Ω
R1	R ₁	Controller, snubber losses	kW
R2	R ₂	Controller, SCR losses	kW
S	S	Total kVA output of alternator	kVA
Sl	S_{1}	Fundamental mode of total alternator output	kVA
SQ1	SQ	DC motor, armature current parameter	
SLOPEB	Slope B	AC machine air gap voltage/corres. field current	pu

Symbol	Symbol		
(Program)	(Equations)	<u>Definition</u> <u>Uni</u>	ts
TRDC	T rac	Temperature rise, dc motor rotor	°C
TSDC	T _s _{dc}	Temperature rise, dc motor stator	°C
TGDC	g _{dc}	Temperature rise, dc motor air gap	°C
TRAC	r	Temperature rise, ac machine rotor	°C
TSAC	T s ac	Temperature rise, ac machine stator	°C
TGAC	T _{gac}	Temperature rise, ac machine cooling oil	°C
Т6	Т6	Temperature rise, controller, heat sink (fins)	°C
T6T	Т ₆	Temperature rise, controller, SCR junction	°C
TIME	t	Time from start of a run	3
DELTAT	Δt	Computation step size	S
VMPH - VMPHY	$\Delta\mathrm{V}$	Change in vehicle velocity over Δt	mi/ h
V	V	Vehicle velocity (from profile)	ft/s
$\nabla \phi$	Vo	Vehicle velocity/vehicle vel. at dc motor base speed	pu
H WIND	V_{W}	Wind speed (headwind is positive)	mi/h
	v_{dc}	Terminal voltage, dc motor	V
VT	V _t	Terminal voltage, ac machine (ℓ-n)	V
VTB	V _{tb}	Base ac machine term. voltage (ℓ-n) after rewind	V
XDSAT	X _d sat	Direct axis saturated synchronous reactance	pu

(concluded)

Syı	mbol	Symbol		
(Pro	ogram)	(Equations)	Definition	Units
	А	α	Firing angle for controller	deg
	D	δ	Power angle for ac machine	deg
	NGB	$\eta_{ m gb}$	Gearbox efficiency	deg
	NDC	$\eta_{ ext{dc}}$	DC motor efficiency	
	NPD	$\eta_{ m pdr}$	Controller efficiency	
	NAC	η _{ac}	AC machine efficiency	
:	PHIDC	$^{\Phi}$ dc	Total de flux - conductor product	pu
	Т8	θ	AC machine power factor angle	deg
	$W_{oldsymbol{\phi}}$	ω	Flywheel and alternator speed/maximum speed	pu



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HOEING 21 PASSENGER BUS EQUIV. WT. = 13222 LBS TIRE RADIUS= 14.2 INCHES GEAR RATIO = 7.17 GEARBOX EFF = .9200 TIRE FRICTIOH : ROLLING COEFF = 0.0023000 LBF/LBM AERO. DRAG : FRONTAL AREA = 53.00 SOFT. DRAG COEFF = 0.61 WIND VELOCITY : 30.0 MPH (RETARDING) -RETURN LEG	MORGANTOWN ROADWAY OUTBOUND DISTANCE: WALNUT TO ENGINEERING = 2.065 MI. RETURN DISTANCE: ENGINEERING TO WALNUT = 2.065 MI. VELOCITY PROFILE: SHOWN ON PLOT, MAX. SPEED = 30.0 MPH MINIMUM WAIT TIME AT EACH STOP = 30. SEC. (LONGER WAIT TIME ALLOWED TO RECHARGE FLYWHEEL)	INITIAL SPEED = 6000, RPM MONENT OF INERTIA = 45.0 SLUG-FTSQ. INITIAL KINETIC ENERGY = 3.347 KWHR.	• •	H.P. ARMATURE VOLTAGE = 420, VOLTS ARMATURE CURRENT = 140, AMPS FIELD VOLTAGE = 24,0 VOLTS FIELD VOLTAGE = 24,0 VOLTS FIELD CURRENT = 12,0 AMPS OF (SERIES/SHUNT) TURNS FOR FIELD = 0.5 FOR FI	LOSS_COMPONENTS AT_BASE_COUDITION (NO_FIELD_WEAKENING) AKM. & SERIES FLD. CU LOSS = 0.0782 PU = 4.095 KW SHUNT FIELD CU LOSS = 0.0055 PU = 0.288 KW FRICT., WINDAGE, & CORE LOSS = 0.0297 PU = 1.556 KW STRAY LOAD LOSS = 0.0100 PU = 0.522 KW BRUSH COMMUTATION LOSS = 0.0053 PU = 0.280 KW	TOTAL DC LOSS = 0.1287 PU = 6.741 KW EFFICIENCY AT MASE CONDITION = 0.8860
VEHICLE:	PROFILE :	. FLYWHEEL ;	D.C. MOTOR/GEN.			

	•		(conti	inued)			
							v =1.0
3-PHASE CONTROLLED BRIDGE SNUBBER LOSSES = 1.% OF DUTPUT RATED AT 140. AMPS D.C. EFFICIENCY AT BASE CONDITIONS = 0.9830	SYNCHRONOUS, 3-PHASE, 4 POLES, OIL COOLED POWER RATING = 75.8 KVA BASE SPEED = 12000, RPM, MIN, SPEED = 6000, RPM REWIND FACTOR = 3.00 BASE SPEED = 3.00 BASE CURRENT = 73.2 APPS/PHASE BASE CURRENT = 73.2 AMPS/PHASE BASE FIELD CURRENT = 14.26 AMPS AIR GAP VOLTAGE BEFORE REWIND = 1.05 PU	ARMATURF CONSTANTS (PER PHASE); RESISTANCE (200 DEG. C.) = 0.0495 PU = 0.2412 DHMS DIRECT AXIS(UMSAT.) REACT = 3.4000 PU = 16.560 OHMS QUADRATURE AXIS REACT. = 1.2400 PU = 6.0300 OHMS APM. LEAKAGE FLUX REACT. = 0.0850 PU = 0.4140 OHMS SUBTRANSIENT REACT. = 0.1450 PU = 1.2170 DHMS	SAT. CURVE_FROFLICH_E0, COEFF,: AAC = 0,3584_PU BAC = 0,6417 PU *** KAG = 1,5190_PU	LOSS COMPONENTS AT BASE CONDITION (NO FIELD WEAKENING) ARM, CU LOSS = 0.0520 PU = 3.938 KW EXCITER_AND_FLD, CU LOSS = 0.0215 PU = 1.633 KW CORE LUSS = 0.0211 PU = 1.601 KW FRICT, & WINDAGE LOSS = 0.0270 PU = 2.045 KW STRAY LOAD LOSS = 0.0052 PU = 0.393 KW	TOTAL AC LOSS = 0.1268 PU = 9.610 KW	EFFICIENCY AT BASE CONDITION = 0.8875	SE TERMINAL WOLTAGE PROPORTIONAL TO FLYWHEEL/MOTOR SPEED INPUT POWER PROPORTIONAL TO FLYWHEEL/MOTOR SPEED AT FULL SPEED, TEPMINAL VOLTAGE IS 20% OVER RATED VALUE (414 VOLTS) AT FULL SPEED, INPUT POWER = 2.61 FIMES RATED (OUTPUT) POWER FOR KPIN ARMATURE CURRENT HELD CONSTANT DURING RECHARGE POWER FACTOR HELD CONSTANT DURING PECHARGE AUX, LOAD SUPPLIED FORM MAYSIDE. POWER DURING RECHARGE
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		DEG	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0	180.0
DELTA	2	DEG	-68.4	-68,4	-68,4	-68.4	-68,3	-68,3	-68,3	-68.3	-68,3	-68,3	-68.2	-68.2	-68.2
p7	IN	KW	29.6	29.7	29.8	29.8	29.9	30.0	30,1	30.2	30.2	30,3	30.4	30.5	30.6
A 5	NI	3 ×	1.1	1.1	1 • 1	1.1	1 , 1	1,1	1,1	1-1-1	1.1	1,1	1.1	1.1	1 • 1
A 4	IN	Κĸ	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1 . 8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0
A 3	N	×	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6-	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8
A 2	NI	X	9.9	9.9	9.9	9.9	9.9	9 9	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7
A 1	MI	×	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0	19,0	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0
NAC			0.834	0.835	0.836	0.838	0,839	0,840	0,841	0.842	0.843	0.843	0.844	0.845	0.846
F 5	NE	ρN	.822	.850	.878	3.906	3.934	3,962	5,160 3,990	4.018	4.046	4.074	4.102	4.131	4.159
15	IN	ρŊ	5,149	5,150.3	5,152	5,154	5,156	5,158	5,160	5-1-62	5,163	5,165	5.167	5,169	5.170
14	NI	ρη	.199	.199	.199	.199	.199	.199	199	199	.199	.199	.199	.199	.199
ΛT	NI	VOLTS	369.9	373.3	376.8	380,2	383,7	387,1	390°6	394-1-	397.6	401,1	404.5	408.0	411.5
MNId	IN	ΚW	178.7	180,3	182.0	183.7	185.4	187,0	188.7	19.0-4-	192,1	193.7	195.4	197.1	198.8
WFDOT	RAD/	SEC-50	2.09	2.09	2,10	2,10	2,10	2,11	2,11	-2-1-1-	2,12	2,12	2,12	2.12	2.13
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NAC	00.708 00.708 00.657 00.657 00.6557 00.6556 00.658 00.733	
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	NAC		0.538	0.54	0.67	00.0	0.00	0,33	0,75	0.67	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.25	0.25	0.25	0,25	000	0,73	0.73	0,73	0 0 0	0.75	0.75	0 75	0,75	0,75	0.75	0.71	0.76	0.79	0000	0,79	0.79	0 79	0.74	0.78	0.75	7
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LPISPL VERSION 6(344) HUNNING ON LPI001

START USER CLARKE [4177,1171 JDB FORZ6 SEQ, 778 DATE 29-JUN-76 18:54:24 HONITOR TSC DECSYSTEM-10 602-1 *START*
REQUEST CREATED: 28-JUN-76 18:50:54
FILE: DSKB01FDR26.DAFC4177,1177 CREATED: 28-JUN-76 18:32:00 <057> PHINTED: 28-JUN-76 18:54:41
0UEVE SWITCHES: /PRINI:ARROW /FILE:FORT /CDPIES:1 /SPAGING:1 /LIMIT:346 /FORMS: STO.

			(co	ntinued)	
FLYMHEEL VEHICLE PROPULSION SYSTEM THERMAL MODEL	THERMAL INPUT WEIGHTING FACTORS FOR D.C. MACHINE: RD1= 0.99 HD2= 0.00 RD3= 0.60 RD4= 0.80 RD5= 1.00 SO1= 0.05 SD2= 1.00 SD3= 0.40 SD4= 0.20 SD5= 0.00	THERMAL INPUT WEIGHTING FACTORS FOR A.C. MACHINE : NA1= 0.00 RA2= 1.00 RA3= 0.20 RA4= 0.70 RA5= 0.20 SA1= 1.00 SA2= 0.00 SA3= 0.83 SA4= 0.30 SA5= 0.80	ROTUR THERMAL RES. = 8.17 18.80 DEG C/KH STATOR THERMAL RES. = 21.60 7.42 DEG C/KH GAP THERMAL RES. = 2.97 3.93 DEG C/KH HUTOR TIME CUNST. = 512.00 64.90 SECONDS STATOR TIME CUNST. = 1127.00 39.50 SECONDS	SCR THERMAL RESISTANCE = 58.80 DEG C/KW HEAT SINK THERMAL RES, = 19.60 DEG C/KW HEAT SINK TIME CONST, = 18.40 DEG C/KW	(1) FOR COMPULING THERMAL INPUTS FROM COPPER LOSSES 1 (A) TRACITON MOTOR RESISTANCE ASSUMED CONSTANT AT 120 DEG, C. VALUE (B) SYNCHRONOUS MOTOR RESISTANCE ASSUMED CONSTANT AT 200 DEG, C. VALUE (2) ALL SOLUTION TEMPERATURES ARE IN DEG, C, ABOVE AMBIENT TEMP.

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                                                                                                               SCR
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      POR
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0SS
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                                                                                                                 \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{GAG} \mathsf{
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STATOR TEMP	ی	85.2	· ·	. 4	0	7 .	è	00	۳)	œ)	- (%	0,	'n	5	ω,	7 .	7 .	7	7 .	7 .		36.	59.	71.	78.	81.	71.	Č.	54.	46.	300	31.	25.	19.
ROTOR TEMP	(3	107.3	່ວີເ	0.50	63.	82.	60	13,	10,	67.	05.	82	00	8	9	4	4	·	'n	5	08.	25.	42.	50.	56.	600	57.	4	51.	48	45	41.	39.	35,
AC GAP COOLING	X 3	11.61	0 0	0.5	63	0.1	5.0	2,4	1.8	1.3	9.8	0.4	5.6	r.	5	9	0,	Ch-	Ů,	0	1.5	4.7	7.9	9.6	8.3	1,2	0.2	6.3	8	7.7	7.8	6.2	5.6	ů.
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ROTOR LCSS	3	3.12	4 -	10	Η.	4	9	<u></u>	Τ.	4	Ψ.	7	4	1	4	S	C.	2	Cd	2	5.7	5.7	80	ф 9	8	23	0	2	62	0	4	0	6	0
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POR OOLING	X	96.8	. 4	4	10	3	5	5	4	5	2	2	5	2	2	5 ,	2	2	۳,	P?	S	00	0.	S	٥.	8		9	5	4.	4	2	3	5
PDR	Ŧ	10 to	2 10.	4	2	M	5	10	4	4	1.	1	-	-	44	M	50	10	5	2	r.	5	5	α	0,	5	5	2	5	5	1	5	5	5
GAP TEMP	DEG C	6.7								-			-	-	-					-		-											do	-
OC STATOR TEMP	ပ ပ	\$0 K				-	-	-			6	6	63	63		9	E.	52	63	6		E.	9	00	62	6	e C	62	62	0	9	62	e Z	60
OC ROTOR TEMP	ر 2	24.2		4	4	m)	44.	4	₹.	4	4	44	47	M	M	M	n	'n	·	3	4	ů.	9	7	7	ω.	ω	φ	7	7	7	7	7	
DC GAP OOL ING	X	2.27	٥.	2	C	5	. 2	2	3	٠ س	5	5	5	5	-2	5.	5	5	2	5	2	2	4	ů	5	0	9 .	0	9	9	ũ	ů	3	5
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2 S O 7	X	1.988	9 00	4	20	e.	4	1.8	٥.	٥.	٥.	Ď.	٥.	0.	0.	2	0	3	23	0.	7.4	7.4	4	8.6	6.	9	9 .	9.	9	9	.7	9	9	9.
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										СH	ARG	I_N C	DDE_DATA_:_(Station A, Final)	1
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	ی ب	4.h	2.5	1.9	명 : 다 :	9	0.6	e e	6	200	9 69	9.6		
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DC OTOR ST	5	12.4	9	9	0	9	IG.	'n u	310	ń,	4	24.6		
GAP RO		I'V R	10	'n.	4 4	4	4	4 4	. W	13 1	5 12	2,34		
ATOR	Z X	25 62	0	8	82 6	20 €	0	G) 6	22.6	0	9 6	8 8 8 8 8 8		
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Part I ALTERNATOR DATA

Source: Westinghouse Aerospace Electrical Division, Lima, Ohio

Generator part number:976J936-10

Service: Used in U.S. Navy S3-A aircraft

Physical Constants: Weight 42.0 lb

Size 8.0D x 9.7 long

Drawing No. 946F907

Rating 75 kVA at 12,000 r/ min

Number of poles 4

Insulation ML-rated at 200°C

for 1,000 h (continuous)

Cooling Spray oil at 4 gal/min

Characteristics 3-phase, brushless

generator, 115 V(1-n)

Weight breakdown in lb:

Stator steel 11.0

Rotor steel 6.9

Rotor copper 2.9

Stator copper 4.1

Frame plus insulation 17.1

Total weight 42.0

(continued)

	Symbol	PU	Ohms
Armature resistance (200°C)	ra	0.0495	0.0268
Direct synchronous reactance (unsaturated)	\mathbf{x}_{d}	3.4	1.84
Quadrature synchronous reactance	X_q	1.24	0.67
Direct subtransient reactance	Xd	0.145	0.078
Armature leakage flux reactance	Xa	0.085	0.046
		man a series of the series of the series	May or the Manager and Auto-May 1076-000 or 100 ft.

Losses in Watts

	No Load	100% Load (75.8 kW)	Loss Model Term
Stator copper loss	0	3938	A
Rotating field copper	251	1687	A ₂
Exciter loss	260	300	A ₂
Stator core loss	1230	1255	A ₃
Pole face loss	325	346	A ₃
Windage loss	2045	2045	A_4
Stray load loss	207	753	A ₅
Fan loss			
Total	4318	10324	P ₇
Essisiana.	75,800	100 -	00 00
Efficiency = -7	5,800 + 10,324	X (00 =	88.0% at rated lo

Part II DC TRACTION MOTOR DATA

Source: ASEA manual for 70 hp dc motor LAU203M 10

Rating	70 HP
Base speed	2730 Rpm
Armature voltage	42o Volts
Armature current	14o Amps
Field voltage	24 volts
Field current	12 Amps
Number of poles	4
Enclosure	Drip-proof
Standards	Nema
Insulation class	F

The motor is an ordinary, ventilated version with two free shaft ends It has been provided with specially strengthened feet suitable for ceiling mounting.

The internal fan is mounted opposite the commutator, and the cooling air is drawn in radially at the commutator end and is exhausted radially at the fan end. Furthermore it is provided with a special air duct at the commutator end for tube connection to a separate blower.

The motor is fed from a 3-phase, 39oV, 6oHz supply through a fully controlled thyristor controller. The shunt excitation is taken from a 24 Volt DC-supply. This supply is controlled in order to increase the motor speed to 317o rpm.

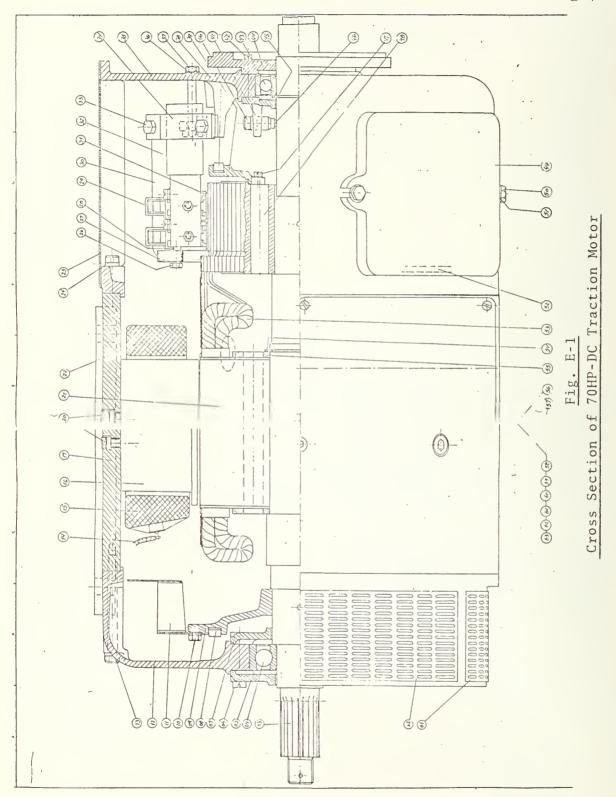


Table E-1
Parts List For 70 HPDC Traction Motor. (See p. E-4)

		DC-motor 1AU203 (Horgan town) Parts list (according to chowing 0808121	Als Dept. Topost District Annierume Congr	03.05.74 Godandi App
	Enhad Positi Unit diamina	Benzeneia Patreme		Dim Paccern nu Bemaren.
	1 01	Gild plate	0808199	
	2 02	the second secon	0808180	
	1 03		0808091	
	1 04		SHF 6310-	225
	1 05		0804150	
	4 05		0331783	M8×50
•	1 07	Juternal bearing cove.	,0624287	
·	/ 08	Balance weight class	6591001	
	1 09		6551008	
	610		0126375	M6×10
	1 11		0282316	
	1 12	Endshield driveend	0808172	
	2.13	Socket screw	000 E 345	3/84N(×4"
	2 /3	Socket Screw	000 E.346	3/84116 × 41/2"
	1114	Hlixon theimostat	18221-4-4	100°C.
	1:14	Hlixon thermostat	18221-6-4	110°C.
	4 15	Juterpole coil	0509221	
	4:16	Juterpole piece	0335975	
	1 17	Stator figure	0808148	
	8 18	Sochet screw	000F437	1/2"HNC×3/4"
	4.19	Main pole piece	0380490	
	8.20	Socket screw	0123277	M8×20
	1.21	Armature comple	te	
1 - 1 - 1		cousist of item 03-	1	48-53-54-55
	4 22	Main coil	0509248	
	4:24	Sochet screw		3/8"4NCX2"
		Blanking plate	0267155	
	4126		0120405	176×25
	1 27		0808261	dill
	16128	Washer	0101451	46,4 Hade 54
	8 29:	Brush holder	0570265	Hade by
	8:31	Cover with air duct		Q49/184 E46
	0.07	CUIDON UIUSU IBALIAYO	0000276	£46
	i		750	9322GB

	·		Nr. No 750 9	322 GB
			Ald Dept. HR	C 5.00 17- 2
			Konstruerer Des-y	O 030574 Codsends Appends
	Enned Pas nr Unit Iremna	Banænnelsø Part name	Idens ne Ident ne	Com Model nr. Bemærkn Dom Faiternne Remerke
	4 32	Grush holder pin	0140554	
	8 33	Hex. head screw	0357758	M8×20
	4 34	Clamp	6040130	·
	1 35	Endshield-Non drive end	0508950	
	2 36	Washer .	0132594	48,4
	2 37	Hex. head screw	0365718	MB×55
	/38	Balance weight clamp	6591001	
	1 39	Balance disc	0135194	
	140	Brush holder Earthing		Mage by
	141	Juternal bearing cover		
	442	Cheese head screw	0331732	M6×50
	143		SHF 6209-	
	1 44	Adapter	0804169	2/03
	1 45	circlip ring	0113654	445
	146	Carbon brush	0518212	Made by
	2 47			Held
	148	Cheese head screw		145×16
	3 49		0715301	
		Juspection cover		4/4/4
	8 50	Her head screw	0357728	148×20
	8 51	Washer	0101672	484
	452	Glasket (Emi)		\$ × 690
	1:53	Armature coils		
	1.54	Circlip ring	0113670	460
	2 55	Thrust ring	0335681	
	156	Washer	0101508	417
	1 57	Eyebolt	6591611	
	1 58	Adapter	0319902	
	1 59	Gashet	0326119	
	160	Terminal box	0808164	
	1.61	Gasket	0326100	
		Cover	0326003	
	12 63	Cheese head screw	0331686	146 × 20
		•	alle antagang stated 40-ts billio-vi-stardin-fillippyggaption	
				00000
•	!		1/50	9322 GB
Penision	1 000	5.0	!	

lew. King lite Plains Y. 10602	56.			Output	203M		218442			
Y. 10602					70.1		Service			
				Voltoge	70 h.p.		cont.			
S. A.				Escitation	420	v	140			
mp. mot	or			Catholion	24	v l	2730	rpr		
/oltage	Curr	ent A I exc.	Input kW	Speed	Cutput kW	Efficience	7			
				1						
20 5 20 5	, <u>1</u>	12,5		3000 •3000				kwise erclcck		
		12,5		2680 2680			clock	wise erclock.		
				<u> </u>						
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ries unt	0,	0111								
100										
Winding, rt of machine	42	0 v 140	O A 12	2,5 Aex	c.	V d by	A By Increase In resistance	A ex By embedded thermameter		
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mm.			57							
rles vnt		-	29 38							
mmutator		32								
2000		1 min.		-	frome min.	2	000 V	1 mi		
vollage V (% i	ncr.) min.		ı	incr.) min.	Overspe	o d	% incr.) mi		
	Vinding Winding Winding Tries unt 100 Winding, rt of machine m. mm. mm.	20 5,1 20 5,1 20 5,1 420 140 420 140 420 140 Winding At (2) 1,1 100 Winding, After (42) 1,1 100 Winding, After (42) Manual	### After cantinuous 1 #### Af	College	Minding	Comp. motor 24 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	### After cantinuaus test at 1,67 100 1,67 100 1,67 1,6	Manufaction Manufaction		

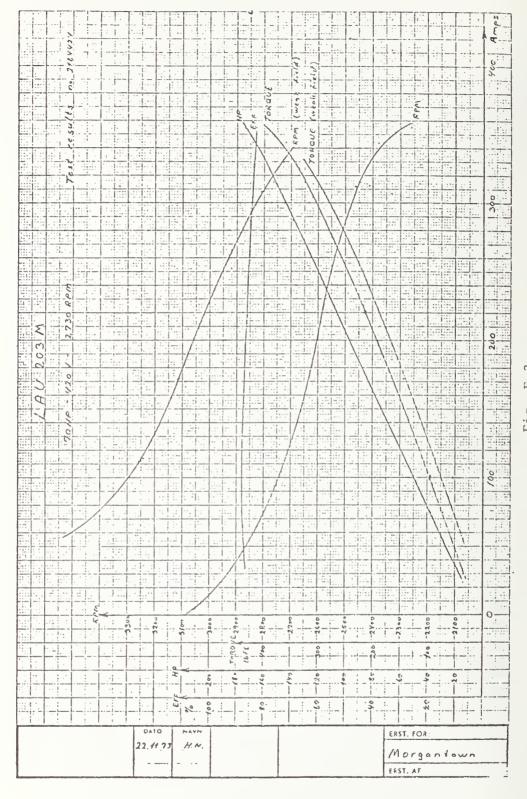


Fig. E-2 Performance Curve For 70HP-DC Traction Motor

WINDING DATA

ARMATURE

43 slots, 129 commutator bars
43 coils (1+2+1) turns of wire 3 par. d=2,o(insulated with a double coating of enamel).
Weight of copper: 24 lbs.

SHUNT COIL

4 coils, 150 turns of wire d= 2,24 (insulated with a double coating of enamel).
Weight of copper: 30 lbs.
Resistance: 1,7 ohms cold.

SERIES COIL

4 coils, 12 turns of wire 3 x 5 mm (Varnish bonded glass covered rectangular copper). Weight of copper: 11 lbs.

INTERPOLE COIL

4 coils, 51 turns of wire 3 x 5 mm (Varnish bonded glass covered rectangular copper). Weight of copper: 33 lbs.

Table E-3

Power Pack Thyristor Data

SOLID-STATE CONTROLLER DATA

Source: Power Semiconductors, Inc. publication: 9 PSI-33(909)

TYPICAL CONTINUOUS USABLE D. C. RATINGS

1500 LFM	IDC	KW Outs	out (I DC Leg X3	X V O C)	DC MOTOR DRIVE - 1.15 SERVICE FACTOR					
Fan Cooled	Per Leg	@ 300 V DC	@ 600 V DC	@ 900 V DC	@ 240 V DC	@ 500 V DC	@ 700 V DC	@ 900 V DC		
F-180	125	110	225	335	85	200	285	365		
F-220	140	125	250	375	110	225	315	405		
F-300	170	150	305	460	130	275	385	500		
F-400	210	190	375	565	160	340	475	610		
F-500	230	205	415	620	180	370	520	670		
F-600	250	225			195					
		Based on: 6" PSI	-3007 Aluminum	heatsink (0.080	c/w H. S Amb.	Thermal Impeda	ince)			

RATINGS:

TYPE PSI-		E or F-180	E or F-220	E or F-300	E or F-400	E or F-500	E or F-600
RMS Fwd. Cur.	IRMS	180A	220A	300A	400A	500A	600A
AVE Fwd. Cur. (180° Cond.)	lave	115A	140A	190A	250A	320A	375A
Fwd. Volt Drop @ 500A Peak	VFM	3.00V	2.60V	2.00V	1.50V	1.35V	1.20V
12t for fusing @ 8.3 mS	I²t	35,000	35,000	65,000	80,000	100,000	125,000
Surge Cur. (1) cycle	IFM	3000A	3000A	4000A	4500A	5000A	5500A

Table E-3
(Continued)

TYPE E or F-600			-5 -5	-6	-8		HIGHER			
E-180, 220, 300, 400 or 500 F-180, 220, 300, 400 or 500				-6 -6	-8 -8	-10 -10	-12 -12	-14 -14	N. -16	A. -18
PEAK FWD. & REV. VOLTS -40 + 0 + 125° c	VFOM VROM		500	600	800	1000	1200	1400	1600	1800
PEAK NON. REP. TRANSIENT VOLT.			600	700	900	1100	1300	1500	1700	1900
PEAK FWD. & REV. LEAKAGE CURRENT - MILLIAMPERE	IFOM IROM		15	15	15	10	10	10	10	10
GATE Peak Fwd. Current	IGFM	3A	- 18				IMPE Doub1		ed Cod	oled.
Peak Power, Watts	Рсм	12W		Trunch			le Sided Cooles			
AVE Power, Watts	PG(AV)	2.5W								
Current to Fire, 25° C	IGT	150mA								
Volts to Fire, 25° C	VgT	3V		Thermal Impact of the Control of the						
Volt. not to Fire, 1250 C	VGD	0.15V		S seed						
THERMAL IMP. J-C	Ө ј-с	0.09º c/w		3 5						
THERMAL IMP. C-HS	Θ c-s	0.03º c/w		2001	.01	.)	10	10	10	
TURN ON TIME, If = 5A	Ton	10 uS (typical)	M	AXIMU		WARD	VOLTA	GE DRO	OP @ 2	5 C
TURN OFF TIME @ 125° C	Toff	150 uS (typical)		e Mox	Imum Forwer	Voltage Dro	THE			
MIN. dv/dt @ 125° C LIN.	dv/dt	100V/uS*						1500		
MIN. di/dt @ 125° C	di/dt	50 A/uS*						73007		
HOLDING CURRENT, 25° C	Ін	100mA(typ.)								
LATCHING CURRENT, 25° C	IL	50 0 mA								
MOUNTING FORCE ± 10%		1200 lbs.				1400		121	0	
*For Special Selections consult Factory - dv/dt up to 5,000 V/u S available.										



APPENDIX F. REPORT OF INVENTIONS

The objective of this work was to develop a computer simulation of electric propulsion systems for flywheel energy storage vehicles. The components that were used to characterize the propulsion system were standard components, therefore the work resulted in no discoveries or inventions.

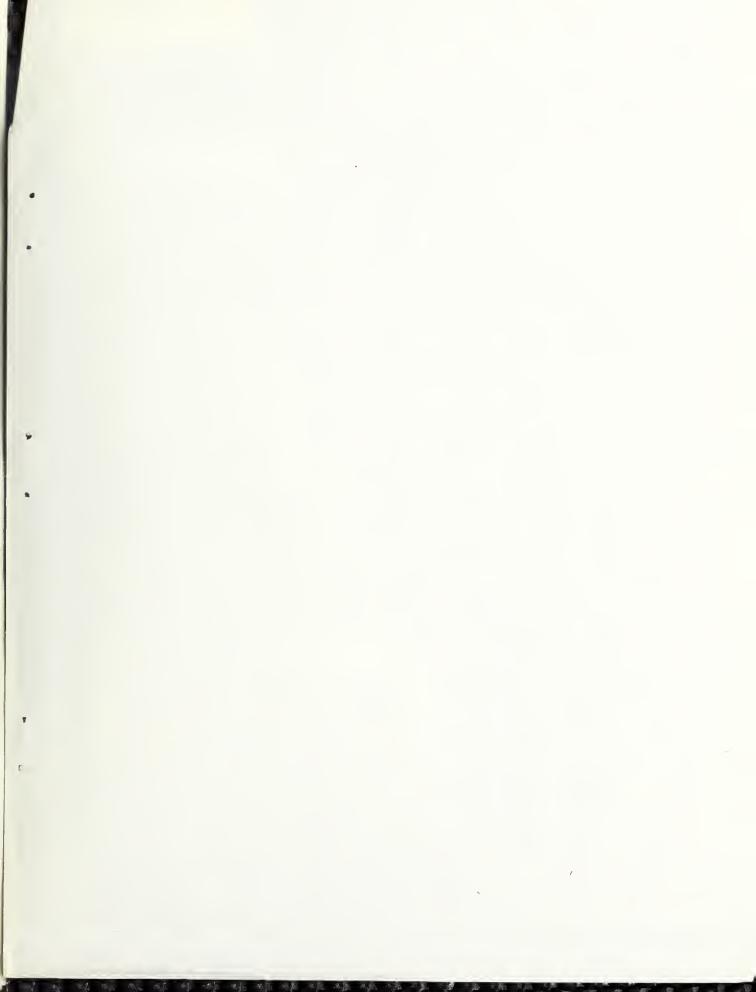
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